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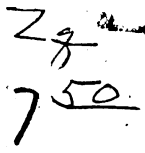
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Vol. I. General

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Gt. Brit. Naval Intelligence Division

A HANDBOOK OF

CHINA PROPER

VOLUME I

GENERAL

1918

NAVAL STAFF

INTELLIGENCE DIVISION

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NOTE

THE aim of this volume is to give a general introduction to the past and present condition of the territories comprised in the term China Proper. These territories are large and diverse, their peoples have a long history, and it has only been possible, in the limits, to deal with the subjects of special importance in short and condensed surveys. Most of the chapters have been written by recognized authorities. Every effort has been made to bring the information up to date, but it must be borne in mind that the government and social structure of China are at present, and have been for some years, in a state of change, and that, under present conditions, no description of these can hold good for any length of time. The Admiralty will be glad to receive additions or corrections.

The map issued with this volume was prepared for the use of the China Inland Mission, and is on the whole the best available for general purposes. The place-names are given in accordance with the romanization adopted by the Chinese Post Office. When the Post Office lists do not contain a name, the compilers of the map have evidently adopted a spelling based on the Post Office system. It follows that there will be some differences between the map and the text in the case of names which do not occur in the Post Office lists, for these, according to the spelling adopted by the Admiralty, are transliterated in this volume after Sir Thomas Wade's system. The map's chief defect is that no relief is shown, and errors exist in the topography and place-names.

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CHINA (prepared for the China Inland Mission, 1916). In two sheets.

CHAPTER I

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY

Structure and Configuration—The Great Plain—The Northern Uplands—
The Southern Uplands—The Coast.

STRUCTURE AND CONFIGURATION

CHINA PROPER consists of an extensive plain completely surrounded, except towards the sea, by still more extensive uplands. Owing to differences in character and structure the uplands may be conveniently divided into a northern section and a southern section, the boundary between the two lying about the Wei Ho, a tributary of the Huang Ho.

Three main regions may accordingly be recognized, namely (1) the Great Plain, (2) the Northern Uplands, (3) the Southern Uplands.

Of these three divisions the Southern Upland region is by far the most extensive, constituting about two-thirds of the whole country; the Northern Uplands form about one-sixth, and the Great Plain occupies the remaining sixth.

Broadly speaking, it may be said that the Great Plain forms most of the north-eastern quadrant, the Northern Uplands most of the north-western quadrant, while the Southern Uplands occupy the whole of the southern quadrants, and spread beyond into both of the northern quadrants.

The simplicity of this arrangement, however, is somewhat interfered with by the presence of one or two detached masses of the Northern Uplands which rise up through the low land of the Plain.

THE GREAT PLAIN

The Great Plain is roughly triangular in shape, with its apex in the north, a little beyond Peking, and its base on the Yangtse River, extending from Shanghai to the neighbour-

hood of Ichang. Near Peking it is about a hundred and twenty miles wide, on the Yangtse its width is more than six hundred miles.

But the plain is not entirely unbroken. In the province of Shantung a mass of ancient rock rises through the alluvial deposits of the plain and forms two isolated hilly groups, separated by a strip of low-lying ground. The western group lies in the interior of the province, and reaches an altitude of about 5,000 ft. The eastern group forms the prominent peninsula of Shantung, with Weihaiwei upon its northern coast, and Tsingtau upon its south. The bay of Kiaochow is cut in the intervening low-lying strip. Geologically the Shantung hills belong to the Northern Uplands, but they are entirely detached from the main mass, which lies to the west of the Plain.

Farther south an irregular series of hills, known as the Huai mountains, runs obliquely across the Plain, almost completely cutting off the south-western corner from the rest. In this corner stand Hankow and Shasi. The Huai mountains belong geologically to the Southern Uplands.

The Plain itself is in general very level, and a great part of it lies very low. In the north it is watered by the Huang Ho and by a number of shorter rivers, such as the Pei Ho, coming down from the Northern Uplands. In the south the principal rivers are the Yangtse, with its northern tributary the Han Kiang, and the Huai Ho with its tributary the Sha Ho.

The Plain is really the combined deltas of all these rivers, and is formed almost entirely of the mud and silt which they have brought down from the Uplands. The Huang Ho has had by far the largest share in its formation.

In its course over the Northern Uplands the Huang Ho cuts its way through widespread deposits of the soft 'yellow earth' or loess which is characteristic of that region, and will be described later. It is, in consequence, a very muddy river, and probably carries down a greater amount of silt than any other river of the globe, except, perhaps, the Amazon. When it overflows it raises its banks by deposition at the edge

of the current ; during the dry season it raises its bed by deposition in its channel. In many parts of the Plain, accordingly, the river is now considerably above the level of the surrounding country, like the rivers of our own Fen district. The natural embankments which the river itself has formed, have been artificially strengthened ; but during the floods the force of the current is often so great that the embankments burst. On many occasions hundreds of square miles have been flooded, and many thousands of the inhabitants drowned. In the floods of 1887 more than a million people lost their lives.

When the embankment breaks it may be easier for the current to escape through the breach than to keep to its old channel ; and consequently the great floods have often been accompanied by a complete change in the course of the river below the breach. In modern times the greatest change of this kind occurred about the middle of last century.

During the first half of the century the river flowed in an east-south-easterly direction from Kaifeng, and entered the Yellow Sea in 34° N.L. In 1851, owing to want of repairs during the political disturbances of that period, the embankment gave way a few miles below Kaifeng. The floods of the following years enlarged the breach, and by 1853 practically the entire river had taken a north-easterly course to the Gulf of Pechili, which it reached in lat. $37^{\circ} 50'$ N.

The distance from the old mouth to the new one was about 280 miles, and Kaifeng is more than 300 miles from both. Since then there have been many changes of the same kind, but of smaller magnitude, and the position of the main mouth has frequently been altered.

The disastrous floods of Northern China, however, are not all due to the Huang Ho. The Pei Ho and other rivers of the north come from the Northern Uplands, and are almost as muddy as the Huang Ho. They tend to raise their channels above the surrounding country in the same way, and accordingly (though small in comparison with the Huang Ho) they have not uncommonly been the cause of extensive inundations.

In the southern part of the Plain the floods, though by

no means inconsiderable, have never been so widespread or destructive as those of the north. The Yangtse flows through the Southern Uplands, where there is but little loess, and its course till it reaches the Plain is mostly over hard rock. In consequence of this, although it is a much larger river than the Huang Ho, it does not bring down so much sediment and has not the same tendency to raise its bed. For the same reason it has not yet had time to produce so smooth and even a delta. There are still extensive lagoons beside its course which it has not yet been able to silt up, and these lagoons extend at intervals up the river for nearly a thousand miles. One of the largest is the Tung-t'ing Lake between Ichang and Hankow. During the rains the flood-water escapes into the lagoons, which spread far beyond their dry-season limits; but the greater part of the Plain is left untouched. The lagoons, in fact, serve as reservoirs to regulate the flow of the water.

THE NORTHERN UPLANDS

The Northern Uplands form a plateau descending abruptly in a series of steps to the Plain. The edge of the plateau is cut up by the rivers which flow down to the Plain, and its surface is also deeply scored by river valleys, the largest and most important of which are those of the Huang Ho and its tributary the Fên Ho. The solid foundation consists of nearly horizontal beds of rock of Carboniferous and pre-Carboniferous age, and it is to the horizontality of the strata that the general form is due. But large areas are covered by 'yellow earth' or loess, and the region owes much of its peculiar character to this covering.

The loess is a calcareous loam, very fine in texture, sufficiently consolidated to form vertical cliffs, but friable and easily worn by running water. In consequence of this the rivers often flow in deep and narrow gorges. Even the regular trade routes are often sunk thirty feet or more beneath the general level. Under the feet of travellers and the hoofs of

their pack animals, the loess is trodden into a fine dust, and in this condition it is easily blown away. Where it is untrodden it is comparatively firm, and is much less affected by the wind.

Everywhere the loess is penetrated by innumerable vertical tubes of very small diameter. Owing to its tendency to split along these tubes the sides of the valleys are often almost perpendicular, or else they descend in a series of terraces with vertical scarps. On account of its tubular structure the loess is very porous, and accordingly the surface of the plateau is usually very dry. The rainfall is small and insufficient for so porous a soil, but wherever irrigation is possible the loess is extraordinarily fertile.

THE SOUTHERN UPLANDS

The Southern Uplands are much more complex in structure and more varied in character than the Northern Uplands. The rocks which form them are not horizontal, but have been strongly crumpled or folded. The effect of the folding was to raise a series of mountain chains, which are, however, mostly of great age, and have accordingly been much worn down by rain and rivers. The structure has been further complicated by the fact that there have been several systems of folding of different directions and different geological ages.

Along the northern border of the Southern Uplands the folds trend from W. by N. to E. by S. The direction of the mountain ranges is the same, and it is evident that they owe their elevation directly to the folding, though subsequent denudation has greatly modified their form. This folding seems to have taken place at the close of the Carboniferous period.

Immediately to the south an entirely different system of folds prevails, and dominates the topography of the greater part of Southern China. It seems to belong to a somewhat later period, for beds which are newer than the Carboniferous have been affected. The general direction of the folds is about WSW. to ENE., becoming more easterly in the north

and more southerly towards the south. The ranges to which they gave rise cover a much wider area than the ranges of the northern border ; but they do not seem ever to have attained so great an altitude, and since their formation they have been much worn down and are now completely broken up.

In the western part of the Southern Uplands a third, and much newer, system of folds enters from Tibet. The trend of these folds is from N. to S. ; and because of their recent formation the ridges and valleys which they produced are still almost continuous.

Owing to these three systems of foldings, which are of different dates, and have been exposed to erosion for different periods of time, the details of the topography of Southern China are extraordinarily complex ; and in order that they may be more easily grasped, certain broad general principles must first be briefly explained.

The direct effect of folding is to produce a series of nearly parallel ridges and valleys. Originally the main rivers will flow along these valleys, in the direction of the folds ; but their tributaries will cut tributary valleys in the intervening ridges. At the head of every river there is erosion, due chiefly to rain and weather, and accordingly each river tends to eat into its own watershed, and to prolong its valley backwards. In course of time a tributary stream may work its way right through the watershed into the valley of a neighbouring river, and may even divert the water of that river into itself, and thence into the river to which the stream is tributary. In this way the original system of parallel ridges and valleys becomes complicated by cross connexions ; and since, at the same time, all the valleys are gradually enlarged and all the ridges gradually worn away by various erosive agents, the former simple arrangement may be lost, and the whole area becomes a confused and apparently irregular series of hills and valleys.

With these simple principles borne in mind there is little difficulty in understanding the general character of the

different parts of the Southern Uplands. For purposes of description it will be convenient to recognize three divisions, according to the three systems of folding which predominate, and these divisions may be called :

- (a) The Northern Border.
- (b) The Western Division.
- (c) The Eastern Division.

(a) *The Northern Border of the Southern Uplands.*—Here the direction of the folds is about W. by N. to E. by S., and the folding is of ancient date, though there may have been later movements along the same lines. The effect of the folding was to raise a series of lofty mountain ranges which reached so great an altitude that, in spite of their antiquity and the denudation from which they have suffered, they still retain much of their former continuity and the main ridges and valleys still follow the direction of the folds.

Many names have been applied to the different parts of this group of mountain ranges. In the tongue of China Proper which projects towards the north-west there is the Nan Shan. Immediately south of the Wei Ho lies the great range of the Tsin-ling Shan, reaching an altitude of 11,000 ft. At its eastern end the Tsin-ling Shan is separated by an oblique depression from the Fu-niu Shan and other smaller ranges ; but even in the depression the height of the watershed is about 4,000 ft., and the ranges to the east of it are really the continuation of the Tsin-ling Shan. The depression is due to a fault which slightly shifts the direction of the folds and of the mountain range itself ; and it is of considerable importance, because it affords an easy route across the mountains from Siangyangfu to Sianfu.

Another depression, of still lower altitude, through which runs the road from Siangyangfu to Kaifeng, separates the Fu-niu Shan from the Huai mountains, which form an irregular series of heights stretching towards Nanking.

Except in the Huai mountains, which are comparatively low, the main ridges and valleys still follow the original

direction due to the folding, and many of the rivers therefore still flow from west to east. This is the case, for example, with the Han Kiang until it reaches the Great Plain. But other tributaries of the Yangtse, such as the Kia-ling Kiang and the Min Kiang, have worked their way back across the folds and run almost due south. Outside the limits of China Proper it is probably owing to cross-cuts formed by tributary streams that the Huang Ho takes its present remarkably winding course through the K'un-lun ranges, which belong to the same system of folding. The Tao Ho, at the western end of the Tsin-ling Shan, is another river which has evidently suffered deflection. In its upper part it flows along one of the main valleys in an easterly direction ; but about a hundred and fifty miles from its source it turns abruptly towards the north, leaves its own valley, which is still continued eastwards, and breaks through the ridge on its northern side to join the Huang Ho. There can be little doubt that originally it continued its eastward course, but a tributary of the Huang Ho cut backwards through the watershed and captured its upper waters.

(b) *The Western Division of the Southern Uplands.*—In western Szechwan and Yunnan the folds run from N. to S., and since they are of recent date they have been comparatively little affected by erosion. Consequently this part of China consists almost entirely of a series of parallel ridges and valleys trending from N. to S. The valleys are V-shaped, their sides are steep, and there is very little level land even along the river-banks. Often, indeed, the rivers run in deep and narrow gorges. It is on the Tibetan border, where the Salween, the Mekong, and the Yangtse run side by side for many miles, separated by high and narrow ranges, that these features are most pronounced ; but the same general character prevails throughout the area.

Nevertheless even here some of the ridges have been cut through and some of the rivers have been deflected from their original courses. The Yangtse, for example, breaks across from one valley to another until at last it leaves the region of

the N. to S. folds altogether. In the present state of our knowledge it is not possible to trace in detail the changes which have taken place. But the general arrangement of the rivers and valleys strongly suggests that after the formation of the N. to S. folds the Upper Yangtse ran southwards much farther than it does now, and perhaps even reached the Gulf of Siam. The Lower Yangtse at that time rose on the outer or eastern border of this system of folding ; but it gradually cut backwards, tapping the N. to S. valleys one after another, until at length it reached that of the Upper Yangtse itself.

Farther south the tributaries of the Irawadi and the Salween have worked their way back through the folds and have produced a series of valleys running from NE. to SW., which cut across the original N. to S. valleys and ridges.

(c) *The Eastern Division of the Southern Uplands.*—It is in this area that the destruction of the original mountain system has proceeded farthest, partly, perhaps, because it never reached so great an altitude as the others. The trend of the folds is WSW. to ENE. or SW. to NE. ; but the region does not now consist of a series of parallel ridges and valleys following this direction. The old valleys have been greatly widened and the ridges much worn down ; and tributary streams have cut transverse valleys through the ridges, which are now completely broken up. Nevertheless the short and discontinuous ranges that still remain commonly preserve the original SW. to NE. trend.

Some indication of the original valley system is also to be seen in the rivers which enter the Yangtse from the south. In spite of considerable irregularities the Kung-t'an Ho, the Yüan Kiang, the Hsiang Kiang, and the Kan Kiang still retain a general north-easterly course.

The drainage of the seaward edge of the region has found its way directly to the sea, and consequently near the coast there are a number of rivers which flow to the east or south-east. Most of them are short, but some (e. g. the Min Kiang, which enters the sea at Foochow) have cut back through the outer ranges of hills into the valleys beyond. In the northern

part of the area the large rivers flowing into the Yangtse have deepened their valleys to so great an extent that the coastal streams have not been able to tap them. But in the south, where the influence of drainage towards the Yangtse would naturally be less marked, one of these coastal streams has worked its way back across the folds into the heart of the country, has captured all the drainage of this part of the area, and has become one of the great rivers of China. This is the Si Kiang, which now rises on the borders of the N.-S. system of folds and which has cut its bed so deep that, in the lower part of its course, it has formed a long and narrow low-lying plain running far into the interior. It is upon the edge of this plain that the city of Canton stands.

But the peculiar features of this division of the Southern Uplands are not entirely due to folding and subsequent denudation. During some past geological period, when climatic and other conditions were different from those of the present day, the rivers were unable to carry their burden to the sea, and many of the depressions were either partly or completely filled by reddish sandy and argillaceous sediments. Sometimes indeed the deposit was so thick that the intervening ridges were partly buried, and a high-lying and somewhat uneven plain was formed, through which the summits of the buried ridges appear as low ranges of hills crossing the plain from SW. to NE. The soil formed by the red deposits is usually very fertile, and consequently these plains are amongst the most densely peopled parts of China.

The most important of these high-lying plains is that of eastern Szechwan, which on account of the colour of the soil is often called the Red Basin. It is in general a gently undulating region, with many low lines of hills running across it and with the rivers sometimes cut rather deeply into the red deposits that form it.

A considerable part of Eastern Yunnan is of the same character, and similar but smaller areas are common amongst the hills of this south-eastern part of China.

THE COAST

The character of the Chinese coast is determined partly by the nature of the rocks which form it and partly by the movements of elevation and depression to which it has been subjected.

The shore of the Great Plain is naturally low, and the only openings of any importance are the mouths of the rivers. About lat. 40° N. the Northern Uplands come down to the sea, giving a steeper character to this part of the coast, which extends as far as the plain of the Liao Ho in the Manchurian province of Shengking.

The Shantung Peninsula, being made of ancient rock, rises abruptly from the sea, and has many rocky inlets, especially upon its southern side. The Bay of Kiaochow is cut in a strip of low-lying ground, but is flanked on both sides by hills.

The coast of the Southern Uplands, extending from Hangchow Bay southwards, is in general steep, with innumerable irregular inlets and outlying rocky islands. Evidently the land has subsided and the sea has spread up the valleys and completely cut off many of the outer hills. Where the valley was occupied by a river of considerable size the delta of the river has begun to fill up the inlet, producing a low-lying alluvial plain. But it is only in the case of the Si Kiang that the plain is of any great extent.

CHAPTER II

GEOLOGY

STRUCTURAL GEOLOGY

IN the Great Plain the solid rocks are entirely concealed by river deposits, but there is every reason to believe that the geological structure is similar to that of the neighbouring upland regions. Consequently, instead of the three main regions already described, it is more convenient from the geological point of view to recognize only two primary divisions, a northern and a southern.

In the northern division, which includes the Northern Uplands and the greater part of the Plain, only the Archaean rocks as a rule are much affected by folding. In some places indeed the later beds have been greatly disturbed and even show over-folding and over-thrusting. But throughout a great part of northern China even the Cambrian beds are almost horizontal or are simply bent into comparatively gentle undulations. This is the case, not only in the plateaux of the north-west but also in the peninsulas of Liaotung and Shantung. Evidently this northern area as a whole has remained rigid since Archaean times. But although it was too rigid to crumple it has not been strong enough to resist fracture, and faulting has taken place on an extensive scale. Some of the fractured blocks have remained standing, while others have fallen to a lower level. The plateau region of the north-west and the peninsulas of Liaotung and Shantung are upstanding blocks, while the Gulf of Pechili, the Yellow Sea, and the Great Plain mark the positions of blocks which have sunk beneath the sea. The Great Plain itself has been formed by the silting up of the sea by the deposits brought down by the rivers.

In South China, on the other hand, folding is much more general. Along the northern margin of the Southern Uplands the direction of the folds, as already pointed out, is about W. by N. to E. by S. These folds affect the Carboniferous rocks and were probably formed about the close of the Carboniferous period.

But throughout the greater part of the Southern Uplands the folds trend from WSW. to ENE., curving round a little more to the east in the northern part of the area and to the south in the southern part. Not only the Carboniferous but also the later beds are affected, and the folding must therefore be of Post-Carboniferous age.

In the west of the Southern Uplands, where the mountain ranges run from north to south, the folding is of still later date, and probably belongs to the Tertiary period.

STRATIGRAPHICAL GEOLOGY

One of the most interesting features in the geological history of China Proper is the length of time during which the country has been land. A large part of the Plain no doubt has been beneath the sea in comparatively recent times; but throughout the greater part of the upland regions the Mesozoic and Tertiary deposits are entirely of freshwater or terrestrial origin. It is only in the south-west that any marine deposits of later age than the Permian have been found. In general it may be said that the Palaeozoic formations of China are mostly marine, and the Mesozoic and Tertiary formations mostly freshwater or terrestrial.

Again, as in the case of geological structure, there are important differences between the northern and the southern regions.

In northern China the Archaean rocks are overlaid by a great series of sandstones, quartzites, and limestones which belong to the Cambrian and Ordovician systems. There are no representatives of the Silurian, Devonian, or Lower Carboniferous beds of Europe; but the Ordovician beds are followed immediately by a series of limestones and sandstones with

seams of coal, corresponding, apparently, with the Upper Carboniferous. The coal-seams are of freshwater or terrestrial origin, but the greater part of the series is marine. In some places there are unfossiliferous dolomitic deposits at the top, which probably indicate lagoon conditions and may perhaps be of Permian age.

North and west of Peking the Carboniferous series is followed by plant-bearing beds of Mesozoic age; but in northern China generally the only later deposits are some reddish sandstones with mammalian remains, the loess and the deposits formed by the rivers. The mammalian remains indicate that the sandstones in which they occur belong to the later part of the Tertiary period. The loess and the river deposits belong to the Quaternary period. The loess is entirely a terrestrial deposit and apparently consists of the fine dust brought by the winds from the arid plateaux of Central Asia. It covers a very large area, and in some places reaches a thickness of one or two thousand feet.

In the Southern Uplands the geological sequence is more complete. All the Palaeozoic systems are represented, and mostly by marine deposits. There are, however, coal-seams, which must be of terrestrial origin, in the Upper Carboniferous.

In Yunnan and Kweichow marine Triassic beds have been found, but elsewhere the Palaeozoic beds are succeeded by sandstones and shales, often red in colour, containing remains of plants. These were evidently laid down upon the land, and the plants indicate that they were formed towards the close of the Triassic period and during the earlier part of the Jurassic.

No Upper Jurassic or Cretaceous beds are known; but red sandstones and clays containing mammalian remains of late Tertiary age occur in Szechwan and elsewhere.

ECONOMIC GEOLOGY

The coal-fields of China are amongst the most extensive in the world, and coal has been worked on a small scale at a number of localities both in the Northern Uplands and the Southern Uplands.

The coal-bearing strata extend from the Upper Carboniferous to the Jurassic, and in many cases the precise age of the coal-seams is still uncertain. On the whole it seems that in the Northern Uplands Carboniferous coal predominates up to about the latitude of Peking, while farther north the Jurassic coal becomes more important. In the western half of the Southern Uplands, in Szechwan and Kweichow for example, the Mesozoic beds (Upper Triassic and Lower Jurassic) are the principal source of the coal; while in the eastern half the coal is mostly Palaeozoic (Upper Carboniferous and Permian).

Probably the most important coal-field, if it were more accessible, would be that of Shansi, extending into the neighbouring provinces of Shensi and Honan. It includes seams of very pure anthracite and of excellent bituminous coal stretching over an enormous area.

Actually, however, the coal-fields which are most extensively worked are those which are within comparatively easy reach of the more densely populated regions, for example, in the hills to the west and north of Peking, in Shantung, and in Szechwan, Kiangsi, and Honan.

Amongst other minerals which may be mentioned are iron-ore, which occurs in Szechwan and in the Shansi coal basin and no doubt in many other regions; copper and tin ores in Yunnan; and salt in Szechwan.

CHAPTER III

METEOROLOGY

General conditions — Pressure — Land-storms — Typhoons — Rainfall — Climate of the Yangtse Valley—Shanghai—Chengtu—Hankow—South China—Hongkong—Macao—Canton—Province of Kwangsi—Wuchow—Province of Yunnan—North China—Weihaiwei—Province of Chihli—Peking—Manchuria—Central Asia—Province of Kansu—Siningfu—Tunhwang — Mongolia — Urga — The Gobi — Uliassutai — Sinkiang (Chinese Turkestan)—Lukchun—Yangikul—Lob-nor—Tibet—Lhasa.

Authorities: Hann, *Klimatologie*, 1911; China Year Book, 1914; China, Maritime Customs, Decennial Reports; Meteorologische Zeitschrift; Hongkong Observatory, Monthly Bulletins; Annales Hydrographiques, 1901-2; Geographical Journal, &c.

GENERAL METEOROLOGY

CERTAIN general conclusions regarding the changes which take place in the temperature of China during the course of the year may be drawn from an examination of Tables III-IX. In Southern China the summers are long and hot, the winters short and mild. At Hongkong, for example, the mean temperature does not fall below 80° F. during the four months, June to September, and only during the month of February is it below 60° F. In the interior the heat of summer and the cold of winter alike tend to be greater, though much naturally depends upon local conditions of elevation and exposure. In Central China the period of greatest heat is less prolonged, and July and August are the only months during which the mean temperature is above 80° F. The winters are much colder than farther south, and in many places January and February show a mean temperature below 40° F. Northern China does not experience the same intense heat in summer, and the mean temperature is generally between 75° and 80° F. near the coast. Farther inland, where it tends to be higher, it is, as a rule, modified by the height of the land. In winter,

January and February are the coldest months, and then the mean temperature is below, and in places considerably below, freezing-point.

The conditions which prevail farther in the interior of the Asiatic land mass ought also to be noted here, as they have very considerable influence upon the climate of China Proper, and for the same reason some particulars relating to Manchuria, Mongolia, Turkestan, and Tibet are also included in this chapter. During the winter months great cold prevails, especially in north-eastern Siberia, where Verkhoyansk has a January mean of -59° F. In summer, on the other hand, the interior of the continent heats up rapidly, the maximum temperature being reached along a stretch of country lying between the Red Sea and Northern India.

As a result of these changes in temperature there are also great changes in atmospheric pressure. Precise details are unfortunately wanting, but the figures given in Table I show their general character. During the winter months a high-pressure system is established over the north-east of Asia. This system reaches its maximum intensity in January, when its centre lies over Lake Baikal. At the same time a belt of low pressure lies over the Pacific south of the Aleutian Islands. The general tendency therefore is for off-shore winds to blow in the north of China, and as far south as Shanghai their direction is more or less from the north-west. Further south they bend round towards the east and reinforce the ordinary trade-winds. The winds which blow from the north-west are generally dry and cold, and they bring but little rain, but those from the north-east deposit a fair amount of moisture upon the coasts of Southern China.

By the month of April atmospheric conditions have undergone a considerable change. The high-pressure area over the land has diminished in intensity, while the low-pressure area over the Pacific has filled up to a considerable extent. Farther to the south the tropic belt of high pressure has moved north and lies with its axis along the 30th parallel. Consequently the barometric gradient is nowhere great, and as a result the

winds are light and irregular. In the south-east of China the north-east wind still prevails, but along the coast of Cential China the winds are ESE., while farther to the north their direction is often from the south-west. Along the whole coast, moreover, land and sea breezes frequently blow at this season of the year

TABLE I
MEAN BAROMETRIC PRESSURE
(Reduced to freezing-point and sea-level)

	<i>Shang- hai.</i>	<i>Hong- kong¹.</i>	<i>Foochow.</i>	<i>Chung- king.</i>	<i>Chefoo.</i>	<i>Peking.</i>
	ins.	ins.	ins.	ins.	ins.	ins.
January .	30.33	30.16	30.26	30.22	30.20	30.37
February .	30.28	30.14	30.24	30.12	30.27	30.21
March .	30.17	30.06	30.14	30.06	30.17	30.22
April .	30.00	29.96	30.00	29.96	30.04	30.05
May .	29.87	29.86	29.91	29.81	29.85	29.87
June .	29.74	29.76	29.78	29.69	29.67	29.67
July .	29.69	29.73	29.73	29.64	29.59	29.66
August .	29.73	29.74	29.75	29.72	29.63	29.79
September .	29.91	29.84	29.86	30.00	29.82	29.85
October .	30.11	29.99	30.02	30.10	30.03	30.14
November .	30.24	30.11	30.16	30.19	30.15	30.33
December .	30.31	30.19	30.26	30.32	30.17	30.35
Yearly Mean .	30.03	29.96	30.00	29.97	29.96	30.04

During the next three months a complete change takes place with the heating up of the Asiatic area. The high-pressure system which had its maximum over Lake Baikal diminishes in intensity and moves off towards the north-west, while a low-pressure system with its minimum over north-west India has spread over the greater part of Mongolia, Manchuria, and China. The tropic belt of high pressure has moved northward over the Pacific and increased in importance. By July the climate of China is under the control of the high-pressure system over the sea and the low-pressure system over the land. Along the southern part of the coast the wind blows in a direction varying from SE. to SW., at the mouth of the Yangtse it is markedly SE., in the Yellow Sea and on the peninsula of Shantung it blows directly from the south.

¹ These figures should be compared with those given in Table VI.

These winds on reaching the coast are drawn inland, where their direction may be considerably modified by local topographical conditions. As they blow from the warm ocean they are heavily charged with moisture, and it is during this period of the year that China receives the greater part of its rainfall. It is important to note, however, that the slope up which these winds are drawn into the interior is a gradual one, and precipitation takes place gradually, so that no part of China suffers from droughts similar to those which occur in India in years when the monsoon is weak.

In September the atmospheric conditions of the winter months begin to reassert themselves. The tropic belt of high-pressure still retains its position but is decreasing in intensity, while farther to the north a low-pressure system is developing to the north of the Aleutian Islands. But the governing fact is the return of the high-pressure system over Lake Baikal, as a result of which the conditions which prevailed during the summer monsoon undergo a complete change. To the north of Shanghai the wind blows NNW., while to the south it blows from the north-east. During the following months these conditions become more marked as the high-pressure system over the land increases in intensity and the low-pressure area over the Pacific moves farther south.

The general atmospheric conditions in winter and in summer having been examined, some special features may next be noted. In winter a certain number of storms always blow from the interior towards the coast, following a direction between NE. and ESE. These storms are of various types. The first is cyclonic in character. A depression, sometimes circular, but more generally elliptic, moves towards the coast, causing the usual weather conditions associated with such systems. When it reaches the open sea the winds circling round it acquire considerable force and often cause violent storms. The second type is rather different. It consists of a long atmospheric depression, the line of lowest readings being maintained at almost the same level for hundreds of miles. This line of low pressure is seldom straight and

usually winds about. As a result various anomalies occur. Two places very widely apart may at the same moment experience the same sudden change of pressure and a reversal in the direction of the wind, or it may happen that places on the coast come under the influence of the depression before places in the interior.

At any particular station during the passage of one of these depressions the weather conditions are somewhat as follows : As the depression approaches the barometer slowly falls, while light winds, gradually dying out, blow from the SE., S., and SW. The temperature rises and fog or rain occurs. As soon as the depression has passed, the wind veers round and blows WNW. or NW. ; it is dry and cold, and often causes rough weather along the coast for two or three days, or even longer.

A third type of storm during the winter months is due to a simultaneous expansion of the high-pressure system over the land and the low-pressure system over the ocean. For example, if the latter extends westward so as to touch the coasts of Japan while the former moves westward over Manchuria and Mongolia, the barometric gradient becomes very steep and winds blow from land to sea with considerable violence. Several storms each year are caused in this way.

In summer the coasts of China are exposed to considerable danger from typhoons. These depressions generally originate in the Pacific along the polar margin of the equatorial belt of low pressure, and between June and October, when they are most frequent and most violent, their starting-point is somewhere in the quadrilateral between 8° and 20° N. and 126° and 139° E. They move north-west, and either strike the coast of Indo-China or veer towards the north-east and reach the coasts of China and Japan. The storm centre is marked by very low barometric pressure, and the wind blows round this inwards towards the centre in a counter-clockwise direction at a speed that may reach from 50 to 110 miles an hour. The centre itself moves forward at a rate of 8 to 50 miles an hour, the usual rate in the north of the China Sea being about

9 miles. There is usually one storm of this description during the month of May, and in June there may be several, but it is seldom that they are of such violence as those which occur during the four following months. They appear to be most numerous in July, but it is probable that observations over a prolonged period would show that there are as many in August and in September. The average number each year is about sixteen. It may be noted that typhoons rarely reach Shanghai, as they are either drawn inland south of that port or they recurve and move towards Japan.

Rainfall.—Summer rains are a characteristic of the 'monsoon' climate. They occur everywhere; although the actual amount of rainfall varies considerably. It is particularly abundant in sub-tropical regions, but very small in some parts of the interior. Between these extremes almost every stage is represented.

Again, the proportion which monsoon rains bear to the total annual rainfall is by no means constant. It is greatest in North China, where 82 per cent. falls in the four months, June to September. In Central China and in the lower and middle course of the Yangtse about 48 per cent. falls during the same period; on the coast from Shanghai to Foochow 49 per cent.; and south of Foochow, 54 per cent. See Table II.

In North China the annual rainfall is generally less than 39.3 inches. In Central and South China it invariably exceeds that amount, except in a few small islands, where the average is somewhat lower than on the mainland. Nevertheless, for certain periods the rain is as plentiful in North China as in the tropics, but during the winter the prevalence of cold land-winds associated with high barometric pressures causes extraordinary dryness. In the Yangtse Valley and farther south the rainfall is more evenly distributed; the winter is damper and the rainy season begins as early as April.

Along the coast from Shanghai to Amoy the maximum rainfall takes place in June. This is usually followed by a diminution in July and a fresh increase at the end of the summer. South of the Tropic of Cancer the distribution again approaches

TABLE II
RAINFALL OF VARIOUS DISTRICTS, MONTHLY PERCENTAGE AND ANNUAL AVERAGE

Station .	Man- churia.	North China.	Korea.	Shanghai- Foochow.	Yangtse River.	Foochow- Canton.	SW. Formosa.	N. Formosa.
Latitude N. .	43½°	39½°	37°	30°	31°	23½°	22½°	25°
Longitude E. .	124°	118°	128°	122°	116°	117°	120°	121½°
January	% 1.5	% 0.4	% 3.5	% 5.3	% 3.9	% 3.2	% 1.7	% 9.8
February	1.0	0.9	2.8	6.3	4.5	3.5	1.6	9.3
March .	2.6	1.1	3.5	8.4	6.8	7.5	3.1	11.2
April .	4.4	3.0	7.2	8.4	11.1	9.3	4.1	6.7
May .	9.0	6.4	6.3	8.8	12.7	14.6	12.5	8.4
June .	12.1	14.1	13.1	16.5	16.7	17.3	18.6	8.5
July .	26.1	33.0	19.8	9.7	13.5	13.0	20.1	6.0
August	21.0	24.3	17.0	11.5	9.9	13.5	20.4	7.4
September	11.1	11.0	13.7	11.0	7.5	10.1	10.2	11.5
October	6.4	3.3	4.3	7.1	7.8	4.3	4.1	7.3
November	2.6	2.1	4.8	4.4	4.0	1.5	1.6	7.1
December	2.2	0.4	4.0	2.7	1.6	2.2	2.0	6.8
Annual average (in inches) .	21.26	20.87	43.31	46.46	46.46	58.27	64.96	145.67

TABLE III
MEAN TEMPERATURES AND RAINFALL IN CENTRAL CHINA (YANGTSE VALLEY)

Station	Sikawei.	Hang-chow.	Ho-ch'iu.	Kiukiang.	Hankow.	Shasi.	Chung-king	Chengt'u.	Hweihstien Kan.
Latitude N.	31° 12'	30° 11'	32° 22'	29° 44'	30° 35'	30° 18'	29° 34'	30° 40'	33° 46'
Longitude E.	121° 26'	120° 12'	116° 15'	116° 8'	114° 17'	112° 15'	106° 54'	104° 15'	106° 4'
Altitude	33 ft.	33 ft.	—	—	—	—	853 ft. ?	1,509 ft.	3,117 ft.
Number of years.	34	5	13	6	10	5	6	4	1
January	° F. 37.5	° F. 41	° F. 34	° F. 36.5	° F. 39	° F. 40	° F. 47.5	° F. 44	° F. 27
February	39	38.5	38.5	40.5	40	39.5	49.5	45	33.5
March	46	47	48.5	49.5	49.5	48.5	55	53	47.5
April	56.5	58.5	59.5	61.5	61	60	67.5	62.5	59
May	65.5	68.5	69.5	71	71	70	71.5	70.5	63.5
June	73.5	76	77.5	77	78	76.5	77	76	72
July	80.5	82.5	82	84	83.5	81	80	79	79.5
August	80	81.5	81.5	83.5	83.5	81.5	81.5	77.5	72
September	73	74.5	72.5	75.5	76	72.5	73	70.5	61.5
October	63.5	64.5	62	65	65	63.5	66	63	53
November	52	52	49	54	54	53	57	54	43
December	42	44	38	42	43.5	45	49	46.5	31
Year	59	61	59.5	61.5	62	61	64.5	62	53.5
Range	43	44	48	47.5	44.5	42	34	35.5	52.5
Rainfall (in inches)	44.02	65.51	34.72	59.96	54.45	47.68	42.48	37.09	—

more nearly what obtains in North China, but not until the Gulf of Tonkin is reached does the summer maximum become again so disproportionately great.

THE YANGTSE VALLEY

From Table III it appears that in the Yangtse Valley no diminution of temperature is recorded as one proceeds farther inland. On the contrary, the winter is appreciably warmer. The cooling influence of the NW. land-wind is more pronounced on the flat coast of Shanghai than in the more sheltered middle course of the Yangtse.

Shanghai.—The following statistics are taken from the Sikawei publications :

TABLE IV
SIKAWAI OBSERVATORY. METEOROLOGICAL RETURN FOR
A PERIOD OF 34 YEARS

<i>Months.</i>	<i>Temperature of average year.</i>			<i>Average diurnal variation of temperature.</i>	<i>Average rainfall.</i>		<i>Average cloudiness : 0 = cloudless sky. 10 = completely overcast.</i>	<i>Wind.</i>	
	<i>Max.</i>	<i>Mean.</i>	<i>Min.</i>		<i>Number of days with rain.</i>	<i>Amount of rain in inches.</i>		<i>Mean velocity, miles per hour.</i>	<i>Mean direction.</i>
	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.					
January . . .	60	37	20	10	10	2.15	6.3	8.4	N. 9° W.
February . . .	62	39	23	9	10	2.29	6.8	8.7	N. 8° W.
March . . .	74	46	29	12	13	3.21	6.8	8.9	N. 52° E.
April . . .	84	56	36	12	13	3.57	6.7	9.3	S. 76° E.
May . . .	88	64	46	13	13	3.60	7.0	8.7	S. 55° E.
June . . .	95	75	57	11	14	6.66	7.4	8.5	S. 53° E.
July . . .	98	80	67	9	11	5.10	6.2	8.9	S. 39° E.
August . . .	97	80	67	10	11	5.94	5.6	8.4	S. 62° E.
September . . .	92	72	58	11	12	4.72	6.3	6.9	N. 45° E.
October . . .	83	63	41	12	10	3.31	5.8	6.5	N. 31° E.
November . . .	74	52	30	12	7	1.85	5.1	7.1	N. 8° W.
December . . .	65	42	22	12	7	1.18	4.7	8.4	N. 23° W.
Year . . .	81	59	41	11	131	43.58	6.2	6.2	

Snow, which is a permanent feature of the northern landscape in winter, becomes of rarer occurrence farther south, until in the southern provinces it appears on the higher ground only. In Shanghai snow falls every winter, but may be regarded as rare.

Chengtú, in the large plain of Szechwan, has an average yearly temperature ranging from a mean maximum of 92° F. to a mean minimum of 33°. The diurnal range of variation is very small, only 10·5°, but in spring it is 12·2°. The rise in temperature is especially marked in May, a month which the natives consider most trying, although the temperature is not as high as in July. March and November are on the whole the pleasantest months in the year. The average rainfall is as follows :

	<i>Winter.</i>	<i>Spring.</i>	<i>Summer.</i>	<i>Autumn.</i>	<i>Year.</i>
Rainfall in inches . . .	0·87	4·05	24·13 .	8·03	37·08
Number of days with rain .	13·5	26·5	39·9	31	110·9

Nearly all the rain falls from June to September. Snow is rare. After the very dry months of December and January there is generally during February some fine rain. March again is dry.

Rain generally accompanies N., NE., or ENE. winds, but in the summer heavy downpours also take place occasionally with W., NW., or ESE. winds.

The air is driest in May, and the maximum of humidity is reached in September after the rainy season. The winter is not as dry as in most parts of China, mists being a common occurrence. The latter make their first appearance at the end of the autumn, but are most frequent in January and February.

The following table (Table V) has been compiled from observations made by Dr. Legendre during the period 1905-1908.

TABLE V

CHENG TU (SZECHWAN) : METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS
BY LEGENDRE (1905-1908)

	Temperature.						Rainfall.	
	<i>Absolute highest.</i>	<i>Absolute lowest.</i>	<i>Mean of daily max.</i>	<i>Mean of daily min.</i>	<i>Mean of daily ranges.</i>	<i>Mean.</i>	<i>Amount (inches).</i>	<i>Rain days.</i>
	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.		
January . . .	55·5	32	49	39	9·5	44	0·24	4·5
February . . .	61	34	50	40·5	9·5	45	0·43	6·0
March . . .	74	38	59	47·5	11	53	0·43	6·5
April . . .	81·5	47·5	68·5	56·5	12	62·5	2·09	10·0
May . . .	90·5	55	77	63·5	13·5	70·5	1·54	10·0
June . . .	89	64·5	81	70·5	10·5	76	4·57	13·2
July . . .	91·5	67·5	85	73·5	11	79	8·15	13·0
August . . .	90·5	66	83·5	72	11	77·5	11·42	13·7
September . . .	84·5	59	75	66	9	70·5	5·98	13·5
October . . .	75	48·5	67·5	58·5	9	63	1·57	12·0
November . . .	67·5	40·5	58·5	49·5	9	54	0·47	5·5
December . . .	58·5	33·5	52	41·5	10·5	46·5	0·20	3·0
Year . . .	92	31	67	56·5	10·5	62	37·09	110·9

At Hankow and in the Han valley north winds are prevalent. They last for 7 or 8 months (August to April). In summer winds are often accompanied by storms and heavy downpours. By the end of May the temperature reaches a maximum of 97° F., and in the lower Han the first harvest (mainly wheat) is gathered. In January snowfalls are no rare occurrence, and above the altitude of 4,265 ft. mountains remain snow-capped until the beginning of April.

SOUTH CHINA

The characteristics of the sub-tropical climate of South China have already been summarized. Particulars of a few important stations are added here. Those referring to Hong-kong, based on official returns of 1915, will be found most trustworthy and detailed (see Table VI).

Canton.—In ordinary years the summer maximum at Canton is 96° F., and the winter minimum 42°. The regular rains last

from March to June, and the excessive moisture and 'mugginess' of the atmosphere make the season trying and unhealthy. The succeeding months are drier, occasionally oppressively hot, but generally tempered by the SW. monsoon. Throughout the summer frequent depressions occur, often followed by typhoons, which occasionally do serious damage on the coast. These storms have a marked effect in lowering the temperature in their neighbourhood, but it is doubtful whether the abrupt transitions which they cause, from stifling heat to comparative chilliness, are altogether conducive to health. The weather in September is variable. As a rule, the months October and November are pleasant, the atmosphere being dry, clear, and bright, and comparatively cool. Towards the end of November the temperature falls considerably, and the Canton winter may be said to have commenced; it lasts through December, January, February, and March, the last two months being generally damp, chilly, and disagreeable.

Opinions differ as to the influence of the climate of Canton on foreigners, but there can be little doubt that it is only the exceptionally robust who do not suffer from the relaxing effects of the damp and prolonged heat of successive Canton summers. The place is by no means unhealthy, however, and enjoys a singular immunity from epidemics and zymotic diseases. It escapes, too, the extremes of heat, which are a feature of the shorter summers in the north.

In the Province of Kwangsi the temperature covers a great range, frequently falling considerably below freezing-point in the winter, for some weeks, in the high north-west—and even occasionally so in the same period in the south, adjacent to Tonkin—while upon the mountains separating Kwangsi from Tonkin snow is occasionally to be seen. On the other hand, the temperature frequently rises above 100° F. At Wuchow the temperature varies from 101° F. in summer to 32° F. occasionally in winter, when thin ice forms in the shallower pools and white frost is abundant in the early morning. For six weeks—January until the middle of February—the cold is particularly emphasized by the northerly winds, which set in in October and continue until March.

TABLE VI
HONGKONG OBSERVATORY : METEOROLOGICAL RETURN FOR THE PERIOD 1884-1913

Month.	Barometric Pressure.		Temperature.						Humidity.	Cloud (0-10).	Rainfall.			Direction of wind.	
	Mean.	Mean diurnal range.	Absolute highest.	Absolute lowest.	Range in month.	Mean of daily max.	Mean of daily min.	Mean of daily range.			Mean.	Total ins.	Duration hrs.		Rain days.
January	ins. 30.040	0.108	° F. 79.3	° F. 32.0	° F. 47.3	° F. 64.6	° F. 56.3	° F. 8.3	° F. 60.0	74	6.5	1.442	52	6.7	N. 76° E.
February	30.024	0.106	79.1	38.4	40.7	62.7	55.1	7.6	58.4	76	7.4	1.688	70	8.5	N. 77° E.
March	29.939	0.103	82.3	45.9	36.4	67.1	59.6	7.5	62.8	83	8.4	2.987	83	11.2	N. 84° E.
April	29.844	0.093	88.6	51.8	36.8	74.6	66.9	7.7	70.2	85	8.0	5.511	79	11.8	N. 89° E.
May	29.750	0.084	91.5	62.0	29.5	81.4	73.6	7.8	76.8	83	7.4	11.713	90	15.6	S. 80° E.
June	29.654	0.070	93.6	68.9	24.7	85.3	77.6	7.7	80.9	82	7.6	15.681	87	20.3	S. 31° E.
July	29.619	0.068	94.0	72.1	21.9	86.7	78.3	8.4	81.9	82	6.7	12.555	66	19.8	S. 39° E.
August	29.628	0.073	97.0	71.6	25.4	86.4	77.7	8.7	81.4	83	6.5	14.362	68	16.7	S. 50° E.
September	29.719	0.080	94.0	65.6	28.4	85.3	76.6	8.7	80.4	77	5.9	9.668	54	14.4	N. 81° E.
October	29.874	0.091	93.8	57.4	36.4	80.8	72.6	8.2	76.2	71	5.1	4.911	35	8.0	N. 74° E.
November	29.990	0.101	86.1	46.7	39.4	74.3	65.2	9.1	69.2	66	5.2	1.421	29	5.2	N. 63° E.
December	30.056	0.106	81.9	40.7	41.2	67.6	58.5	9.1	62.6	67	5.2	1.226	37	5.2	N. 65° E.
Year.	29.845	0.090	97.0	32.0	—	76.4	68.2	8.2	71.7	77	6.7	83.165	750	143.4	N. 86° E.

TABLE VII
CLIMATE OF MACAO

Meteorological return for the period 1882-93—Lat. N. 22° 11', Long. E. 113° 32', Alt. 26 ft.

	Baro- metric pressure.	Temperature.						Hu- midity.	Cloud (0-10).	Rainfall.		Days with storms.	Days with Light- ning.	Days with Fog.
		Average.			Absolute.					Amount (inches)	Rain days.			
		Max.	Min.	Mean.	Max.	Min.	Mean.							
Mean.	ins.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	%	5-6	1.54	3.8	0.1	0.1	2.4
January	30.18	66	55	58.5	76.5	44	76	76	7.1	1.30	5.1	0.1	0.1	5.2
February	30.15	63	53	58.5	74.5	44.5	80	80	8.0	4.09	8.5	2.4	0.9	6.5
March	30.07	68	59.5	63.5	79.5	50.5	85	85	7.1	10.94	9.5	5.1	2.7	5.7
April	29.98	77	68	72.5	87	59	86	86	6.4	10.90	10.7	4.2	5.0	0.3
May	29.86	83.5	74.5	79	91	68	84	84	5.8	16.77	13.9	4.4	6.1	0.0
June	29.78	87.5	78.5	83	93.5	73.5	84	84	5.7	12.83	15.6	5.4	8.3	0.0
July	29.72	88.5	79.5	84	94.5	75	85	85	5.4	11.65	12.5	5.8	7.0	0.0
August	29.76	88.5	79	83.5	94	75	84	84	4.8	7.72	9.6	1.9	5.6	0.0
September	29.83	88	77	82.5	94.5	71.5	77	77	3.7	2.64	3.1	0.3	1.6	0.0
October	30.01	85	73.5	79	91.5	66	72	72	4.0	0.71	1.8	0.1	0.1	0.2
November	30.13	77	65	71	85.5	54.5	69	69	3.6	0.75	1.2	0.1	0.0	0.0
December	30.19	70	57.5	64	78	48.5	67	67	5.6	81.84	95.3	29.9	37.5	20.3
Year	29.97	78.5	68	73.5	96.5	41.5	79	79						

The seasons consist of a dry and pleasant winter, during December, January, and half of February ; a chilly interval, with rain, preceding spring, lasting until mid-March ; a period of gradually rising temperature with rain, which may be called spring, lasting until early May ; a period of heat, extending from May until the beginning of October, with tropical and torrential rains at intervals during May and June, together with heavy thunderstorms during midsummer ; and a cooler and dry autumnal period, concluding towards the end of November—at this period occur severe thunderstorms with vivid and dangerous lightning.

The following table is based on observations made during the period 1898–1901 :

	<i>Average Temperature.</i>		<i>Rainfall.</i>
	<i>Max.</i>	<i>Min.</i>	
	° F	° F	inches.
January . . .	79	34	0.96
February . . .	89	40	1.22
March . . .	84	39	3.06
April . . .	92	50	8.00
May . . .	95	61.5	7.10
June . . .	96.5	69	5.94
July . . .	96	72	6.35
August . . .	101	73	5.02
September . . .	96	65	5.08
October . . .	94	56	0.19
November . . .	91.5	43	0.43
December . . .	82	40	0.24
Year . . .	91.5	53.5	43.59

The climate of Yunnan is influenced by the SW. monsoon. The rainy season lasts from June to October. But climatic conditions vary considerably in different parts of the province. Thus, in the NW. region there are two rainy seasons, one from July to September, and the other in February, whilst the valley of the Mekong from latitude 25° to 27° gets very little rain at all. The valley of the Salween is damper, more thickly covered with vegetation, and more unhealthy than that of the Mekong, especially in the rainy season. The winter months, November to February, are the pleasantest.

Snowfalls are common on the mountains, some of the crests remaining snow-clad all the year round.

In the SW. the valleys are low-lying and malarious. The winter in the valley of the Red River is dry, up to a height of 3,000 ft., above which the hills are enveloped in mist and rain. Mist is also prevalent in East Yunnan, where the climate more nearly approximates that of Szechwan and Kweichow.

The table-land in the centre of the province enjoys a better climate. The heat, though considerable, is seldom excessive, and the range is small. At Talifu a record kept for 14 months showed a maximum of 76° and a minimum of 36°.

NORTH CHINA

The monthly mean temperature and annual rainfall of various stations in North China and Manchuria are given in Table VIII.

The figures for Weihaiwei (Table IX) refer to the year 1910 only.

Chihli, and the loess region generally, is often visited by sand-storms. The sky is hardly ever quite clear, the haze which shrouds valleys and mountains being produced by very fine dust held in suspension in the air.

In Peking the greatest diurnal variations of temperature take place in May and amount to 51° F.; from November to January they are reduced to 45·5°. The average monthly variation reaches in April 49·5°, but in July and August, during the summer rains, it is only 29·7°. For mean temperatures see Table VIII. The relative humidity is in winter 58 per cent., in summer 71 per cent.; the minimum 49 per cent. being recorded in April, the maximum 76 per cent. in July-August. The average cloudiness (taking 10 as maximum) is 2·1 in winter, 4·9 in summer, 3·4 for the whole year. The average number of rainy days per winter month is 2·5, and during each of the three summer months 11·8 (July 13·8 days). The average amount of rain in inches is as follows: January 0·118, February 0·197, March 0·276, April 0·630, May 1·535, June 3·346, July 8·386, August 6·457, September 2·638, October 0·630, November 0·276, December 0·079; total for the year 24·568.

TABLE VIII
MEAN TEMPERATURES IN MANCHURIA AND NORTH CHINA

Station	Harbin.	Mukden.	New-chwang.	Dairen (Dainy).	Chefoo and Weihaiwei.	Kiaochow.	Tientsin.	Peking.	Hsi-wan-tze (Si-wan-tse).	Taiyuanfu.
Latitude N.	45° 43'	41° 48'	40° 57'	38° 56'	37° 34'	36° 4'	39° 10'	39° 57'	40° 58'	37° 55'
Longitude E.	126° 40'	123° 23'	122° 27'	121° 36'	121° 30'	120° 17'	117° 10'	116° 28'	115° 18'	112° 52'
Altitude	525 ft.	197 ft.	16 ft.	33 ft.	66 ft.	246 ft.	16 ft.	131 ft.	3,822 ft.	2,592 ft.
Number of years	9	6	6	5	10	10	10	36	7	3
January	° F. -1.5	° F. 7.5	° F. 16	° F. 24.5	° F. 30.5	° F. 31.5	° F. 25	° F. 23.5	° F. 4.5	° F. 21
February	5.5	10	17	25.5	30	32	27	29	13.5	26.5
March	24	29.5	31.5	35.5	39	40	39.5	41	28	36.5
April	42	48	47.5	47.5	50.5	50	54	56.5	41.5	53
May	56	59	60.5	58.5	61.5	60	66	68	54	65.5
June	66	70.5	70.5	67.5	70	68	74.5	76	63	74.5
July	72	76	76	73.5	75	74	78.5	79	67	80
August	69.5	74	76	75.5	76.5	76.5	78	76.5	64.5	74
September	58	62	65.5	69.5	70.5	70.5	70	67.5	54	63.5
October	40	48	53.5	58.5	60.5	61	57	54.5	41	51
November	21	28	34.5	42.5	46.5	47.5	41.5	38.5	21.5	39
December	3	16.5	21.5	30.5	35.5	36	30	27.5	9.5	21
Year	38	44	47.5	50.5	54	54	53.5	53	38.5	50.5
Range	74	68.5	60	51	46.5	45.5	53.5	55.5	62.5	59
Rainfall (inches)	19.05	24.13	22.20	22.79	22.20	24.53	19.17	24.57	15.43	13.78

TABLE IX
WEIHAIWEI METEOROLOGICAL RETURN, 1910

Barometric pressure.		Temperature.				Rain or snow.	
Mean.	Mean diurnal range.	Absolute highest	Absolute lowest.	Range in month.	Mean of daily max.	Mean of daily min.	Mean daily range.
ins.	ins.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.
January .	30-219	49	2	47	36	17	19
February .	30-253	52	2	50	41	17	24
March .	30-162	62	17	45	48	25	23
April .	30-075	72	24	48	58	36	22
May .	29-948	90	35	55	75	49	26
June .	29-739	91	46	45	80	56	24
July .	29-731	91	58	33	83	63	20
August .	29-782	90	60	30	84	65	19
September .	30-049	81	51	30	76	58	18
October .	30-220	78	41	37	69	48	21
November .	30-185	71	21	50	54	35	19
December .	30-332	45	8	37	36	19	17
Annual mean	30-058	73	30	42	62	40	21
						No. of days.	Amount.
						ins.	ins.
						6 (4 snow)	0-78
						1 (snow)	0-00
						2	0-80
						2	0-68
						1	0-07
						9	5-02
						15	10-63
						11	7-67
						4	0-55
						1	0-05
						14 (2 snow)	9-18
						8 (7 snow)	0-75
						74 ¹	36-18 ¹

¹ Totals.

In winter the NW. winds which sweep across the table-land of Mongolia become warmer as they descend into the plains of Chihli, the edge of the Kalgan plateau constituting a climatic divide.

In Manchuria strong SW. winds set in at the beginning of March and continue for about two months. They bring warmth and moisture from the south and usher in the spring, nevertheless the ground remains frozen until the end of March. April is the only real spring month, for in May summer can be said to have begun. Wheat sown at the end of April is harvested at the end of June or beginning of July. For mean temperatures see Table VIII, Harbin and Mukden.

Before June the rainfall is light, and heavy downpours with thunderstorms do not occur until July, when the heat is greatest. Rain often falls day and night without ceasing, with the result that the country is flooded and the earth rendered very soft. The best month in the year is October, when the weather is clear, the air mild and quickening, and the flowers in full bloom. Towards the end of the month the first frosty nights are recorded. In November frost sets in vigorously and holds sway until the following March. In Mukden the temperature sinks as low as -27° F. and in Kirin even below -40° . But such extreme temperatures are rare. During the summer months the maximum heat is 99° or 100° .

CENTRAL ASIA

In the province of Kansu (about latitude 36°) the climate is agreeable. The winter, however, is cold, and the Yellow River, despite its very strong current, freezes entirely. From the end of March until October fine weather prevails. The temperature rises to 93° F. without becoming oppressive, and ripens excellent fruit, particularly melons of exceptional size. The rainy season sets in with SE. winds at the end of September and lasts during the greater part of October. Dust-

and sand-storms occur mainly in spring. They are often of a violent character, but the air soon clears again.

Above the altitude of 15,000 ft. the Nan Shan remain snow-clad all the year round. In the higher altitudes the weather is very variable during the summer; rain, hail, thunderstorms, snow, and sunshine often follow in rapid succession. The air is at times exceptionally clear and quite free from dust. From June 26 to July 25 the extreme temperatures recorded are 20.5° and 80° , the mean of daily minima and maxima being 31.5° and 65.5° .

The observations recorded in Table X were made at Siningfu (lat. $36^{\circ} 37' N.$, long. $101^{\circ} 44' E.$, alt. 7,808.5 ft.) in 1904 by Filchner

TABLE X

	Temperature.					Humi- dity.	Cloud (0-10).	Rain days.
	<i>Absolute highest.</i>	<i>Absolute lowest.</i>	<i>Mean of daily max.</i>	<i>Mean of daily min.</i>	<i>Mean.</i>			
	$^{\circ} F.$	$^{\circ} F.$	$^{\circ} F.$	$^{\circ} F.$	$^{\circ} F.$	%		
May	74	36	65.5	43.5	53	34	5.8	7
June	88	43.5	76.5	50.5	63	52	5.8	14
July	95	46	78	55	65	66	6.4	11
August	86	41	74.5	50	61	65	4.3	15
September	76.5	38	67	43.5	54.5	65	5.7	11
October	69.5	29	56.5	36	45.5	57	4.3	8

N. of the Nan Shan, at an altitude of from 4,000 to 4,300 ft., on the edge of the desert, the diurnal variation of the wind in March is very regular. The night is perfectly calm. At about 8 a.m. a strong cold north wind sets in and continues for about two hours. At noon the maximum temperature is reached amid a perfect calm. But soon the north wind sets in again and blows until 4 or 6 o'clock. This north wind affects the skin in a most painful manner. The wind is E. in May, E. and SE. in June, SE. from July until October. During months at a stretch not a drop of rain falls, and sand-storms are frequent. But in summer the SE. monsoon determines a distinct rainy season.

‘ At Tunhwang on April 1, 1907, the thermometer registered a minimum temperature of -7° F., or 39° below freezing-point. But before the month was ended the heat and glare had already become very trying (on April 20 the thermometer showed 90° F. in the shade), and whenever the wind fell, perfect clouds of mosquitoes and other insects would issue from the salt marshes ’ (Sir Aurel Stein).

Mongolia is largely covered by the Gobi. The latter, with the exception of a rainless central region, is not properly a desert, but approximates to the nature of a steppe. In eastern Mongolia continuous rain usually falls in the summer for two or three days in succession, and in winter a little snow is the rule. The northern regions are mountainous, with abundant vegetation. Urga, on the northern limit of the Gobi, is generally visited by easterly winds which set in in April or May and bring a little rain. The mean annual temperature is 28° F., the averages for January and July being respectively -16° and 63.5° . The average cloudiness for the whole year is only 2.8, or 1.6 in winter and 4.4 in summer. The average rainfall is only 6.42 inches, there being no rain or snow except during the period May-September.

The southern limit of the Gobi is much exposed to heavy storms, especially in the spring when the NW. wind is most violent. On the other hand, the mean temperature is much higher than in the region of Urga.

In western Mongolia the wind is very violent and occasions frequent dust- and sand-storms. Extreme cold in winter is followed by intense heat in summer. The following figures are available for Uliassutai ($47^{\circ} 48' N.$, $96^{\circ} 50' E.$, altitude 5,365 ft.). Mean temperature in January -15.5° F., in July 65° ; mean annual 30° . Extreme temperatures -40° and 94° . The air is very dry and practically no rain ever falls. Easterly winds prevail in winter; NW. winds in summer.

Sinkiang, or Chinese Turkestan, is characterized by extreme temperatures, almost total absence of rainfall, and violent

sand-storms. West winds prevail except in the Lob-nor region (see below).

The following table gives the mean temperatures recorded at three stations in Sinkiang :

Station . . .	Lu-k'o-ch'in (Lukchun).	Shufu (Kashgar).	Sochefu (Yarkand).
Latitude . . .	42° 42'	39° 25'	38° 15'
Longitude . . .	89° 42'	76° 7'	77° 16'
Altitude . . .	50 ft. below sea-level	4,035 ft.	4,118 ft.
Number of years . .	2	3½	1
	° F.	° F.	° F.
January . . .	13	21·5	21
February . . .	27	32	31·5
March . . .	45·5	47	44·5
April . . .	66	63	64
May . . .	75·5	66·5	70
June . . .	85·5	75·5	76
July . . .	90·5	81·5	81·5
August . . .	85·5	78	74·5
September . . .	74	66·5	66·5
October . . .	55·5	54	56
November . . .	33	38·5	39
December . . .	21	27	24
Year . . .	56	54·5	54
Variation . . .	77·5	60	60·5
Rainfall (in inches) .	—	1·81	0·51

The extreme temperatures recorded at Lukchun are -5° and $108·5^{\circ}$ F. The mean of daily ranges is in winter 24° , in spring 30° , in summer 30° , in autumn $30·5^{\circ}$, the minimum being in January (22°) and the maximum in September ($34·5^{\circ}$). The average humidity in spring is 37 % at 7 a.m., 17 % at 1 p.m., 30 % at 9 p.m.; in summer 45 % at 7 a.m., 20 % at 1 p.m., 32 % at 9 p.m.; in September and October 53 % at 7 a.m., 24 % at 1 p.m., 43 % at 9 p.m. The average number of rainy days is 5·5 in winter, 6 in spring, 12 in summer, 1 in autumn; total for the year 24·5 days. But the amount of rainfall is extremely small. The average cloudiness is 3·4 in winter, 4·7 in spring, 4·1 in summer, 3·2 in autumn; annual average, 3·8.

At Yangikul, in the Tarim valley (lat. $40^{\circ} 52'$ N., long.

86° 51' E., alt. 2,890 ft.), the following temperatures were measured in 1899–1900 by Sven Hedin :

	Temperature.			Humidity.
	Mean.	Mean of Daily Max.	Mean of Daily Min.	
	° F.	° F.	° F.	%
December	20	38.5	6	69
January	9.5	26	– 1.5	67
February	17	40.5	1	64
March	40	54	22.5	55
April	55	69	38	45
May (1–19)	69	87.5	47.5	33

In the Lob-nor region E., ENE., and NE. winds prevail, the ENE. being particularly violent, and blowing almost without intermission in the day-time during the whole of spring. Locally it is called *Karaburan* (i.e. the black storm), because the clouds of dust it raises completely obscure the sky. Winter is marked by absence of wind, and in summer and autumn the air is comparatively calm.

Tibet has more rain than Sinkiang or Kansu, especially in the S. and SE. portion of the province, where the prevalent SW. winds are moist. At Shigatse, in the valley of Sanpo or Upper Brahmaputra (29° 3' N., 89° E., about 12,800 ft.), December and January are noted for cold winds, which for three or four hours daily (generally between 11 a.m. and 2 p.m.) blow with extreme violence. Snow is seldom more than 12 inches deep. In May the sky is cloudy, and about the middle of June (or earlier still) the rainy season sets in and continues during July and August. The rainfall diminishes in September, and October is usually quite dry, the dryness being determined by cold E. winds which make their appearance at this time of the year. The number of rainy days in the Sanpo valley has been roughly estimated at : 20 in May, 11 in June, 12 in July, 20 in August, 14 in September.

The following temperatures were measured at Lhasa (29° 39' N., 90° 57' E., alt. about 12,900 ft.) :

	<i>Absolute Highest.</i>	<i>Absolute Lowest.</i>	<i>Mean of Daily Max.</i>	<i>Mean of Daily Min.</i>	<i>Mean.</i>
	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.
August	95	46	86	48.5	67
September	89	31	80.5	44	62

Observations made three times a day in 1900-1 gave the following results :

<i>Month.</i>	<i>At sunrise.</i>	<i>At 1 p.m.</i>	<i>At 9 p.m.</i>	<i>Mean.</i>
	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.
December	18.5	35.5	27	27
June	58.5	73	63	65
Average for 235 days	41.5	58	48.5	49.5

The rainy season came to an end on September 13. October and November were perfectly dry. The first snow fell on December 7, but disappeared almost immediately. Subsequent snowfalls were recorded, viz. one in January, three in February, two in April, but it never settled long in the valleys. Heavy downpours became frequent after May 5. They occurred chiefly in the evening or during the night, and during May and June were not seldom accompanied by hailstorms.

CHAPTER IV

FAUNA AND FLORA

THE FAUNA

CHINA may be divided into three main faunal districts :

(1) The southern district, stretching from the Salween to the sea and bounded on the north rather by the cooler climate and dense population than by the Yangtse, its natural frontier, is a tropical region exhibiting the animal forms of Burma, Siam, and Tonkin, to which the low jungle-covered hills are rather an approach than a barrier. Among birds the Porphyrio and pea-fowl (*Pavo spicifer*) of the south and south-west may be mentioned. The largest snakes are the pythons (*reticulatus*, *molurus*, and *bivittatus*), the poison-bearers being the cobra and the pit vipers.

The deer are all small, including muntjacs (*Cervulus*), of which three are indigenous, chevrotains, and the Chinese water-deer (*Hydropotes inermis*), and three species of tufted deer, all peculiar to the country. Leopards and tigers, smaller than those of India, are numerous, as are the Macaque monkeys, *rhesus*, *lasiotis*, a Chinese variety of the same, which is found also in Szechwan and in the interior, *Macacus arctoides*, and *M. sancti johannis* found only in Hongkong. A gibbon (*Hylobatis hainanus*) occurs in the island of Hainan.

Phayre's leaf-eating langur (*Semnopithecus phayrei*) is met with in the hot country adjoining Burmah; another langur (*S. roxellanae*) is found on the snow slopes of western Szechwan.

(2) In this district, bounded on the east by the Lolo mountains, the climate is abruptly modified by the intense cold of the Tibetan plateau, and the fauna is similar to that of the Himalayan slopes and of Tibet.

Ursus torquatus and *malayanus* occur together, and there are in considerable numbers that small, curious, bear-like form the panda, including the rare and distinct species *Aeluropus melanoleucus*. The leopards, which are very numerous, are so modified in colour and pelage as to be scarcely distinguishable from the ounce or snow-leopard, which is also found. The tigers, now very rare, have lighter, often almost grey, skins, and are as big as the Siberian race.

Of small cats, *Felis cattus* is common, and there also occur *Felis tristis*, *Felis scripta*, and a local form of *F. temmincki*, the Bay cat of Malaysia.

But the closest connexion with Indian fauna is found in the pheasants, deer, and antelopes. The goral (*Cemas goral*), known as the 'Good' Antelope from the excellent sport it provides, the serow (*Nemorhoedus bubalinus*), and the takin (*Budorcas taxicolor*), genera rarely represented in zoological collections, dwell on the mountains; musk deer (*Moschus sifanicus*), much reduced in numbers by continual pursuit, lie hidden in the forest belts, and muntjacs are found in the valleys.

The Phasianidae, so widely distributed throughout China, are represented here by more genera and species than elsewhere. Gold, silver, amherst, and other well-known pheasants occur in the valleys; high in the mountains west of Tatsienlu, often far above the snow-line, are found much rarer races, the horned pheasants or tragopans chiefly; *Cerionis temmincki*, *Lophophorus lhuysii* akin to the monal, three species of the five known *Crossoptila* or eared pheasants, three blood pheasants (*Ithaginis*), two of those short, square-tailed pheasants the pucras, and doubtless others only waiting to be discovered.

At Batang, 30° N., are green parrots, the highest and most northerly range of the genus.

The flying squirrel (*Pteromys*) of Szechwan, the giant bamboo rat, the swimming shrew, and the mole-like *Scaptochinus*, all indigenous to the country, must be mentioned.

(3) This district, which extends eastward from the moun-

tains of Kansu and Shansi, comprises also the whole of the Great Plain of China. Here the fauna has so many affinities with that of North America that there must have been some land connexion at Bering Strait at no very remote geological epoch.

The halys, the only poisonous snake of North China, is closely related to the copperhead; the one alligator of the Eastern hemisphere (*A. sinensis*), found in the Yangtse in 1891, is akin to *A. mississippiensis*; the spoon-beaked sturgeon and the giant salamander have their counterparts in America.

The mandarin duck (*Aix gallerita*), whose gorgeous plumes are entirely different from those of the Carolina summer duck (*A. sponsa*), is yet related to this loveliest of the Western Anatidae, and their soberly-dressed consorts are practically indistinguishable.

The recently discovered *Ovis jubata* of North Shansi is not more closely related to *Ovis poli* than to the bighorn sheep of the Rocky Mountains, which it slightly exceeds in size. The American wapiti, on the other hand, are rather larger than the Chinese, of which four species at least inhabit Shansi and Kansu.

The sable, glutton, and bison are likewise common to the two continents, also a number of other animals, e. g. otters, hares, foxes, and wolves, which are rather generally distributed in all northern latitudes.

On the other hand, *Cervus sika* in all its forms, and the Raccoon dog (*Canis procyonides*), remarkable for its unique habit of hibernation, are limited to Manchuria, China, and Japan.

From the Siberian plain, of which North China forms a part, huge flocks of mallard, teal, widgeon, pintail, and other well-known ducks, curlews, plovers, herons, snipe, and sandgrouse, the bean, and seven other varieties of geese, including the now rare swan goose (*A. cygnoides*), fly south in annual migration.

Swans, chiefly *Cygnus musicus*, are not abundant; the black stork is common in China, so are the common and Demoiselle crane and the common heron. The egret (*Ardea*

garzetta), which furnishes 'osprey' plumes, is not unknown. The osprey itself, vultures (*V. monachus* and *Gypaetus barbatus*), eagles, bald-headed and white-tailed, several varieties of hawks and owls, large numbers of jays and magpies, woodpeckers, thrushes, and ousels, quail and partridges, make up a very incomplete list of bird life in N. China.

Fishes have not yet been carefully studied. The serpent-head (*Ophiocephalus argus*) occurs in most parts. The mandarin (*Siniperca chua-tsi*) seems to replace our perch; eels, bream, roach, gudgeon, are found, and commonest of all, the carp—the parent stock of the looking-glass carp, the telescope-eyed carp, and the gold fish.

Of the insects, the bombyx (*Bombyx mori*), the domesticated silk-producer, is probably not indigenous; the ailanthus silk moth (*Atticus cynthia*) is abundant, and has a great and increasing value. The kermes (*Coccus sinensis*) produces a wax used for wood-polishing—it is bred on a privet (*Ligustrum lucidum*) and transported 200 miles to be reared on an ash (*Fraxinus chinensis*).

FLORA

The flora of China is one of the richest in the world, surpassing considerably, in variety of species, the analogous territory of the United States, which is approximately equal in area and between the same parallels of latitude. Over 9,000 species of flowering plants and ferns have already been described, of which about one-half are endemic or not known elsewhere; the other half being plants common to the adjacent regions, Himalayan and Japanese species preponderating. In spite of the arduous labours of the French missionaries David and Delavay, and of the British botanists Hance, Henry, and Wilson, whose immense collections (stored at Paris, and in the great herbaria at Kew and South Kensington) have not yet been thoroughly examined, there remain in China vast tracts to be explored botanically, so that the total number of species may be computed to reach 12,000 to 15,000.

The rich vegetation is due to the mountainous nature of the country, as in numerous valleys new species have been evolved and kept from extinction by their isolation. The virgin forest, which once spread over almost the entire country, has been in most parts extirpated by the progress of agriculture ; yet in the high mountains of the interior great forests still exist, and around villages and temples small woods have often been preserved, in which the nature of the indigenous flora can be studied. In the north the flora is palaearctic and differs little from that of Manchuria and Siberia ; but in the central and western provinces it strongly resembles in main features the vegetation of the Himalayas and Japan, whilst towards the south there is some accession of species that have immigrated from Burma and Indo-China.

Above a certain elevation, decreasing as latitude increases, but about 6,000 feet in Hupeh and Szechwan, the mountains are girdled by a coniferous belt, similar to that of the Alps, but with a distinct species of larch, and with numerous and different species of silver fir and spruce. Below this zone the woods are composed of deciduous and evergreen broad-leaved trees and shrubs, mingled together in an extraordinary profusion of species. Dicotyledonous forests of one or two species only are extremely rare, though small woods of oak, alder, and birch are occasionally seen. There is nothing like the extensive beech forests of Europe, the two species of Chinese beech being very rare and sporadic. The heaths, *Calluna* and *Erica*, which cover vast tracts of barren sandy land and of peat-mosses in Europe, are absent from China, where the ericaceous vegetation is composed of numerous species of *Rhododendron* and *Azalea*, which cover immense areas on many mountain slopes. The pine woods (*Pinus Massoniana* in the south-east and the Yangtse valley ; *Pinus sinensis* in the mountains of the central and western provinces and in the low hills of Chihli) are similar in appearance to the *Pinus sylvestris* forests in Europe, but are rarely extensive in area, and are of no great economic value at present.

Certain remnants of the Miocene flora, which now only exist

in Europe in the fossil state, are still conspicuous and similar in North America and China. In both regions there are several species of *Magnolia*, one species each of *Liriodendron*, *Liquidambar*, *Sassafras*, and *Gymnocladus*; and curious genera like *Nyssa*, *Hamamelis*, *Decumaria*, *Catalpa*, *Coptis*, and *Diphylleia*. The *Taxodium*, or deciduous cypress of the swamps of the southern States, which was once widely spread over North America, Europe, and Siberia, is represented in China by the almost extinct *Glyptostrobus* or 'water pine' of the Chinese, which occurs as a rare tree on the banks of rivers near Canton. *Pseudolarix*, *Cunninghamia*, and *Keteleeria* are magnificent coniferous trees which have become extinct elsewhere. The most remarkable tree known to science, *Ginkgo biloba*, the only surviving link between ferns and conifers, has only been seen in temple grounds in China, but is expected to be found wild in some of the unexplored districts of the interior. Its leaves, which resemble those of the maidenhair fern on a large scale, have been obtained in Tertiary beds in the Isle of Mull. In spite of the presence of the Miocene element in both floras, the appearance of the vegetation of China bears little resemblance to that of the United States. Though there are sixty species of oak in China, many with fine foliage and remarkable cupules, yet the red oaks, so characteristic of North America, with their bristle-pointed leaves, turning brilliant colours in the autumn, are quite unknown. The vast coniferous forest which extends from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Coast has no analogue in China, where the giant and preponderant Douglas fir (*Pseudotsuga Douglasii*) is represented by an allied species, so rare that it has only been found as yet in two stations. The giant *Sequoias* of America are replaced in China by *Cryptomeria*, which attains only half their height.

Most of the European genera are present in China, though there are curious exceptions, as the plane tree and the whole *Cistus* family, so characteristic of the Mediterranean region, are unknown. The *Rhododendrons*, of which only four species are European, have their headquarters in China, where over

130 species are known, varying in size from tiny shrubs, not six inches high, to tall trees. Herbaceous genera, like *Lysimachia*, *Primula*, and *Gentiana*, few in species in the West, have each a hundred species in China, extraordinarily diverse in habit, in size, and in colour and arrangement of their flowers. Shrubs and climbers, belonging to *Clematis*, *Rubus*, *Rosa*, *Lonicera*, and other common European genera, are extremely common in China, where they run riot in the number of their distinct species and multifarious varieties. The ferns are equally polymorphic, numbering over 400 species, and including strange and newly discovered genera, like *Archangiopteris* and *Cheiropteris*, which are unknown elsewhere. About forty species of bamboo have been distinguished, of which one with a square stem, from Fukien, is the most curious. The most northerly and the most common palm is *Trachycarpus Fortunei*, which is conspicuous in the Chinese landscape, as it is largely cultivated for its fibre, which is used for making ropes and cables, and in the manufacture of hats and rain-cloaks, used by the peasants in wet weather.

The Chinese, stimulated by the great abundance of beautiful flowering shrubs and herbs around them, became skilful gardeners at an early period; the Emperor Wu Ti established in 111 B.C. a botanical garden at Ch'ang-an (Sianfu), into which rare plants were introduced from the south and west. Many of our common garden plants originated in China. The *Chrysanthemum*, one of the most valuable of cultivated flowers, is derived from two wild species (small and inconspicuous plants) which are mentioned in the ancient Chinese classics. Many kinds of roses, camellias, lilies, and peonies are due to the skill of the Chinese gardeners. Some of the most ornamental plants that are now cultivated in Europe have been introduced from China, as *Wistaria*, *Diervilla*, *Kerria*, *Incarvillea*, *Dielytra*, *Hemerocallis*, *Funkia*, *Astilbe*, *Rodgersia*, *Primula* (*sinensis*, *obconica*, *pulverulenta*, &c.). The peach and most of the orange tribe are natives of China. The varnish-tree (*Rhus vernicifera*), from which lacquer is obtained; the tallow tree (*Sapium sebiferum*); the white mulberry, on which silkworms are fed; the

wood-oil tree (*Aleurites*), which yields an oil used as a substitute for paint on woodwork ; and the tea plant, were all first utilized by the Chinese. The Chinese have numerous medical plants, of which ginseng and rhubarb are the best known. Nearly all our cereals and vegetables have their counterpart in China, where there are numerous varieties which should be introduced either for their intrinsic merits or as material for breeding new kinds of value. The soya bean is a Chinese product.

CHAPTER V

HISTORY

I.—FROM ANCIENT TIMES TO THE MANCHU DYNASTY

Origins—Mythical and Semi-mythical Rulers—The Chou Period—Confucius and Lao-tzŭ—The Ch'in Dynasty and the First Universal Emperor—The Han Dynasty—Three Centuries of Short Dynasties—The T'ang Period—The Sung Dynasty—The Yüan or Mongol Dynasty—The Ming Dynasty—The Ch'ing or Manchu Dynasty.

Origins

WHEN the traveller first sees the magnificent buildings of Hongkong and Shanghai he may be excused if he pictures these places to his imagination as the supreme efforts of Chinese civilization, and the whole of the vast mysterious interior as an intellectual wilderness swarming with ignorant and uncivilized people. But to the Chinese it is quite the other way about : the inherited Chinese notion has it that the whole coast-line is a dark and uncanny region on the extreme outskirts of the enlightened interior.

This unexpected view of things has its explanation, if not its justification ; for it is certain that the Chinese race, or at least that part of it taking the lead in culture, had its earliest developments in the lower Yellow River valley ; roughly speaking, from the point where it leaves all traces of the various deserts behind it, to a shifting spot usually not very far from the modern treaty-port of Tientsin, where it enters an enclosed corner of the World Ocean known to our maps and charts as the Gulf of Pechili. Naturally the spreading movement first took its obviously convenient directions up the courses of the various tributaries, some of which came down from the haunts of what we call the Tartar tribes in the north ; others from the Tibetan or Tartar-

Tibetan tracts in the west ; and, finally, a few from the south and east, two quarters entirely inhabited by populations more or less akin in language and sentiment to the superior political organization which was in sole possession of that key to progress—a written script.

It will be easier for the inquirer to grasp the reasonableness of China's elementary civilization ideas if he glances at old maps of the world as conceived at similar periods by ourselves, except that once more it was the other way about : the coasts of the Mediterranean were the habitats of the progressive tribes or nations in possession of a written script, whilst most parts of Europe, Asia, and Africa were totally unknown to these, except in so far as certain rivers brought messages from the wild interiors. Even so recently as the beginning of our Christian era the geographer Strabo produced a map showing that, once out of touch with the Black Sea, Caspian, Red Sea, and Persian Gulf, the civilizers of the Mediterranean knew less of what lay beyond that limited area than the Chinese knew of what lay beyond the Yellow River valley.

The next question is : How did the Chinese get to the Yellow River valley in the beginning ? Quite recently a learned attempt has been seriously made to connect the Chinese vocabulary with that of the old Sumerian language of Babylonia, both as to spoken sounds and as to written hieroglyphics. For present purposes it may be permissible to assume that, since man has remained organically unchanged so long, wherever human groups found themselves in remote times they had equal chances of social and political development, subject to the divers effects of their several physical environments. Until the art of writing, or of recording in some way was discovered, there could not be any 'history' of what man did or had once done during countless ages. The Egyptians, Babylonians, and Chinese were amongst the few groups that actually did discover how to write, and they have been rewarded with a historical memory accordingly, whilst other groups have left no trace.

Mythical and Semi-mythical Rulers

The mythical and semi-mythical early Emperors of China may be ignored for practical purposes, for there are no definite dates anterior to 842 B. C. There are exhortations to virtue, descriptions of popular life, and so on ; records of bad emperors and good, virtuous ministers and vicious : we may safely allow our imaginations to fill in details, for, in the main, the humdrum life of settled cultivators went on then much as it has done ever since up to fifty years ago. But there was no cotton, no sugar, no tea, nor of course any one of those numerous luxuries, such as tobacco, soap, &c., which are comparatively modern even to ourselves. On the other hand, the Chinese always had silk, and to them all other nations owe an exclusive debt for the use of this valuable clothing material. The legendary emperors, who are supposed to have introduced in turn most of the ordinary arts of life, fill up the greater part of the third millennium before Christ : then come two hereditary dynasties (the Hsia and Shang or Yin Dynasties) covering between them a period of over a thousand years. The very names of these ' Emperors ' are in most cases obscure, and seem to point rather to dates than to personages : a few graves and indecipherable rock inscriptions still in existence are connected with or referred to those remote periods by native antiquaries ; and quite recently numerous unquestionably ancient memoranda carved on scorched bones have been excavated.

The Chou Period

In the year 1122 B. C. the last wicked emperor of the second hereditary dynasty perished during a popular revolution brought on by his own licentious misdoings, and the chieftain of one of the vassal principalities into which Old China seems to have been at all times divided was called to the Imperial throne by general acclamation. A great many novelties and new organizations were introduced by this—the Chou—dynasty, which seems, whilst still a mere subject principality, to have

developed a special and fairly high civilization of its own, with new ceremonial, court, and social canons, all which it proceeded to impose upon the petty principalities over which it had now become supreme lord. Yet for the first three hundred years of its existence even this dynasty can only count as being semi-historical.

The fifth of the kings of reorganized China (1001-947 B. C.) is supposed by some to have discovered or visited Persia, Babylonia, and even Africa : after being buried in a grave for 600 years, an ancient Chinese 'book' (bamboo slabs) recording this monarch's travels amongst the Tartars and Turki tribes in the year 990 B. C., was dug up about 1,600 years ago. Reduced to modern script the book is fairly intelligible, but does not seem to take the monarch beyond the middle course of the river Tarim in Kashgaria. In this connexion it may be mentioned that from this time onwards to the epoch of the historian Confucius (550 B. C.) there is abundant evidence that the Chinese were engaged in constant struggles with various Tartar tribes or nations along the whole line of the still existing Great Wall—parts of which, indeed, were already being constructed as local defences in those earlier days ; moreover, that the ruling dynasty, together with its kinsman vassals, had frequent marriage relations with Tartars, treated with them on equal social terms, and even recognized the possibility that China might all or in part fall under direct Tartar rule. In fact, Confucius himself, referring back to this earlier period, said that China had had a narrow escape of becoming a Tartar state.

This struggle with the Tartars, as will presently be seen, has gone on with scarcely a break to our own days, and though the nomad horsemen all the way from the Volga to the Yalu (Korea) have never numbered in all more than, say, a million fighting men, China has never, previously to A. D. 1900, really absorbed and governed any considerable part of the steppe Tartar land. With the rest of the world as she knew it, she had more success ; that is to say, with the various tribes speaking 'monosyllabic' and 'tonic' languages akin

to or at least in sympathy with the various Chinese dialects. As the streams of adventurous colonists followed the river valleys, and rolled southwards and eastwards, they occasionally met with resistance; but there were no mounted archers of strange aspect as in the north to surprise and overwhelm them, nor was there any shock or antipathy in the general mode of life. The lines of development seem to have been as follows: an enterprising Chinese colonist gains the goodwill of a tribe and sets up as a chief, introducing (with his friends) into the tribe some system of administration, including the mysterious but all-important written character. Sometimes this state is quietly absorbed; sometimes it acquires a sort of semi-independence, and even blossoms out into a rival 'power', with a history of its own; but at no time within the past 3,000 years—the utmost stretch of genuine history—has China had any real or fundamental danger to encounter in or from the south.

As we have said, dated history only begins from 842 B. C. In the year 841 the emperor or king took flight, and a sort of republic was set up until the death of the fugitive in exile in the year 828, when the royal power was handed back to his heir: the term *kung-ho*, or 'republic', as now used, had actually been in vogue for a few years. But the old patriarchal power had gone for ever: it was no longer effective, and the half-dozen or so of 'great powers' among the numerous genuine Chinese states supposed to be vassal to the king intrigued and made war amongst themselves incessantly, occasionally making use as a catspaw of the king's government, and even taking temporary possession of his royal person. Meanwhile several of the mixed or half-Chinese communities in the south put in 'imperial' claims too, so that when Confucius conceived the idea of writing his celebrated Annals (covering the period 772–480 B. C.), he had to describe a restless state of affairs when the king was a sort of Vatican prisoner, and the refractory powers were struggling for pre-eminence just as they did at intervals in Europe as the old imperial Rome broke up. During this period China

had increased enormously in population, wealth, industry, and military efficiency; the country between the Yellow River and the Yangtse River valleys had gradually been either effectively absorbed or brought within the scope of Chinese culture, and at least three of the half-Chinese powers (roughly corresponding to immense areas around the modern Shanghai, Hangchow, and Hankow treaty-ports) had assumed aggressive attitudes, and even aspired to become kings or emperors instead of mere vassal nobles. It was during this restless energetic period that the old patriarchal faith or religion in China split off into two rival systems of political philosophy. This development was perhaps made easier by the gradual simplification of the writing art.

Confucius and Lao-tzŭ

Every one has heard of the Taoist and Confucianist teachings: as a matter of fact the two rival apostles who are commonly associated with these so-called religions were both merely interpreters, for political purposes, of the ancient *tao-tê*, or code of natural ethics. The elder apostle, Lao-tzŭ, was a bookish recluse in charge of the archives at the imperial or royal headquarters: despairing at the sight of so much bloodshed and self-seeking he advocated a kind of innocuous anarchy. Confucius, who occupied active ministerial posts at one of the most cultivated vassal or ducal courts, took the line of moral submission to the old monarchical idea, and even travelled about from court to court in order to try and convert the reigning vassals to his views. His own master, the reigning duke, was kinsman to the king. Both philosophers were unsuccessful in their lifetime, and the teaching of neither succeeded in establishing itself as a state engine until at least five hundred years after their death.

The Ch'in Dynasty and the First Universal Emperor

Meanwhile in the extreme west of China a mixed Tartar-Chinese power had been quietly developing a military *Kultur* of its own. Though it took part in most of the great ducal or

vassal durbars which from age to age debated and patched up or settled the imperial and vassal affairs of China, it was for 500 years 'officially' unrecognized as a member of kindred civilization : its isolated social position somewhat resembled that of Muscovy in the sixteenth century. But at last a great ruler arose who was not to be denied : by means of diplomatic intrigues and shifting alliances he succeeded at last in conquering one after another all the great Chinese states, including the much-reduced imperial or royal appanage. By the year 221 B. C. the new universal ruler had firmly set himself on the imperial throne as first *huang-ti* or 'august emperor' (of the world), decreeing that his successors were to be numbered ('second emperor,' &c.) and not personally named.

This great ruler was no figure-head in the hands of a military camarilla, but, whatever his faults, was an energetic man of initiative, and may indeed, not without truth, be designated the founder of the Chinese Empire as we have known it for 2,000 years. It is recorded of him that he personally perused and disposed of one hundredweight of official dispatches a day ; but it must be remembered that 'documents' in those days were slabs of wood or bamboo strung together like tallies, so that one single dispatch or message might weigh anything from an ounce to a pound. Disgusted during his labours of reorganization with the wearisome arguments and protests of philosophers, peacemongers, and visionaries, he decided at last not only to destroy all the historical and contentious literature of China except what he thought useful books on divination, medicine, agriculture, &c., but also to get rid of all the learned men too. This was so effectively done that from that day to this the ancient 'classics' (as subsequently unearthed and deciphered) have never been quite trustworthy in detail.

Of course these summary acts of the First Emperor have earned for him the execration of posterity and blinded the orthodox to many of his more admirable qualities ; nor is it difficult to believe that he really carried out his fell acts, for

in those days 'books' were only owned by a very limited number of scholars at the different courts, and every man who owned so priceless a thing as a book could easily be identified and arrested. It was a case of producing it or effectively hiding it and denying it. This ruler unified weights and measures, reformed the laborious written character, standardized cart-axles, travelled all over the empire as far as the sea and the great lakes of Central China, repelled the Tartars, unified the Great Walls, sent generals out to conquer little-known regions in the south, and, generally speaking, centralized all administrative control. Of course, attempts were made to assassinate him, but he died a natural death in the year 210 in the course of his travels: thus the originality of his ideas had scarcely time to bring forth ripe fruit, and his son 'the second emperor' was totally unable to digest what his powerful father had rapidly swallowed. The result, however, was that China was unified much as we now see it in so far as China Proper is concerned. Much of the south, which hitherto had only been known in the same vague way that Scandinavia, Russia, and North Europe generally were known to the Roman Empire at that date, was either explored, overrun, or conquered.

The Han Dynasties

Revolts soon broke out when the master-hand was removed, and discontented princes or generals found ready tools in the shape of the outraged populations. After several years of bloody warfare a commander, who had already earned the title of Prince of Han, succeeded in overcoming all rivals and establishing the Han dynasty with capital at a commanding centre now known as Sianfu, from which point both Tartars and Tibetans in the north-west and the recalcitrant tribes in the south-east could be simultaneously kept in check. It was to this ancient metropolis that the Emperor and his aunt-mother—the dowager—fled in A. D. 1900 in order to escape the immediate disasters consequent upon the so-called Boxer rebellion. The Han dynasty ruled the whole

of China, almost as we now know it, for 400 years, and rapidly consolidated the loose conquests of the First Emperor it had replaced : so brilliant were the general results that 'man of Han', 'Han language' to this day constitute the most usual and expressive way of translating our words China and Chinese.

In order to repel the Tartars more effectively, the fourth of the Han monarchs endeavoured to 'cut off their west arm' by allying himself with defeated rival nomads newly settled in the Oxus region. This move led to the complete conquest of the Tarim valley, the discovery of Parthia and India, and a wholesale drive westwards of the main bodies of Huns (as they were called when Western writers became increasingly aware of their menaces). Meanwhile, under the first three rulers of the new dynasty, Korea had been not only clearly discovered, but brought under control. Japan had sent messengers by way of the peninsula. The coast-trade, which up to the beginning of our era had been conducted by local agencies unknown to the real pulsating centre of China, became officially and definitely centred between what we now call Ningpo and Canton. The non-Chinese (but still of course monosyllabic and tonal) tribes of south-west China had been, if not subdued, at least forced to submit to peaceful penetration ; and it was clearly understood that besides the ocean route there was a south-west land way through them to India, and thence again a second route to the Parthian or Persian regions.

It is extremely interesting to have in our possession in Paris and London innumerable wooden documents of this adventurous era of discovery : most of them were unearthed by Sir Aurel Stein, and they have been arranged and translated by the French specialist Chavannes, throwing with absolute precision a flood of light upon the Chinese military and economic organizations 2,000 years ago. We must not forget to add that the ancient ethical literature had been gradually found in various holes and corners, put together with the aid of old folks' memories, reduced to the simpler form of writing by this time in vogue, and largely increased, developed, and

commented upon by enthusiasts. In a word, China was now definitely established as a populous, civilized, industrious, and even conquering empire, capable of holding her own against all comers, and mistress of the world so far as she knew it : her pretensions in this respect were not less reasonable than those of the rival masters of an *orbis terrarum* in the Far West.

There was a revolution and a break of a few years in the Han rule at the opening time of our Christian era, which resulted in the transfer eastwards of the capital to the city in modern times called Honanfu : hence the historians distinguish between the Western Han and Eastern Han dynasties, each of about 200 years in duration. During the latter India was definitely discovered and Buddhism introduced. This latter important event was largely brought about through Chinese rivalry with the great Buddhist power established in the Hindu Kush region—the transformed Tartar power, in fact, with which China had previously ‘cut off the Huns’ right’. Taoism and Confucianism had both fallen into comparative neglect during the first two centuries of military discovery and foreign domination above described, but now, when they began to raise their heads as a political force once more, they saw themselves confronted in their own home with a rival foreign cult of a purely spiritual type, and in the consequent three-cornered struggle for existence both of them—more especially Taoism—had to compound with and even borrow from Buddhistic ideas.

Chinese power in the West gradually weakened during the 200 years of the Eastern Han dynasty, though the Hun-Tartar influence on the Chinese frontiers was further broken up, and for a time a successful rivalry was maintained in the Khotan-Kashgaria region with the rising Indo-Scythian (Kushan or Ephthalite) monarchy of Kabul—once more the Tartar emigrants who had moved south from the Oxus and replaced the Greeks.. More was heard of the Syrian provinces of the Roman Empire by way of the now decaying monarchy of Parthia, and the progress of foreign sea trade, including the Roman, *via* Canton and Rangoon, began to throw a more

distinct light upon Ceylon, India, and their Buddhist and Brahmanistic connexions with Cochin China. The position of Japan in relation to Korea was geographically understood, but nothing was yet known of Formosa or Loochoo; very little of maritime Indo-China, Burma, or Siam (then called Cambodia), next to nothing of Yunnan, Tibet, the sources of the Yellow River (then confused with the Tarim), and the Yangtse River, still less of the vast region we now call Manchuria, and, indeed, despite expeditions, of the greater part of Mongolia. The main lines of Chinese advance were (1) the sea, (2) the rivers and lakes leading to the Shanghai and Canton outlets, and (3) the single great land road from Sianfu to Persia and Europe by way of the Tarim valley and Lob Nor.

The third 'edition' of the great Han dynasty was only able to maintain itself in Western China; south of the Yangtse a military adventurer succeeded in asserting the claims of the southern colonies, with their sea-power and foreign connexions, to a separate state existence. A second military adventurer ruled exclusively in the north, dealing with Japan, Korea, Manchuria, Mongolia, the Tartars, and the Ephthalites, whose king, Vasudeva, accepted from him a Chinese honorary title. This 'Three Kingdom Period' only lasted fifty years, and is full of interesting detail, counting indeed as the most chivalrous episode in Chinese history, and immortalized by a historical novel written, however, a thousand years later in the fourteenth century. But this division of Chinese state power, though possibly good for popular development, letting in as it did a flood of immigration, a healthy rivalry, and new ideas, had a disintegrating effect upon China as a weighty state organization. The position, in fact, was similar to that of the Roman state at about the same period, when the wholesale admission of 'barbarians' to an equal citizenship led to rival Gallic, German, and other aggressive state developments, to the ultimate division of the imperial power between Rome and Constantinople, and to general unrest and rivalry in the rest of Europe.

Three Centuries of Short Dynasties

The next three hundred years of Chinese history are altogether too complicated for more than a passing generalization here. The breaking up of the earlier and united Tartar power sent most of the Huns and Avars permanently towards the Volga. This movement somewhat freed the Tibetan hordes, the Manchu-Tungusic tribes, and even the Shan or Siamese organizations of the south-west (Yunnan, &c.) and the Annamese of Indo-China, with the result that Tartars, Tibetans, and Tunguses began to drive the pure Chinese southwards, and to arrogate to themselves titles as local 'emperors'. The Chinese spoken language thus affected by foreign influences developed under mixed populations into a current jargon etymologically far removed from ancient standards; and the idea of a South China as distinct from a North China became more and more permanent or accentuated. Thus the city we now call Nanking obtained permanent recognition as the headquarters of a sort of Chinese Byzantium. During these three centuries (A. D. 300-600) of involved strife and kaleidoscopic change China lost nearly all her land influence in the West, and the Tibetans (enlightened by Indian philosophy) and Turks (enlightened by Syrian letters) had opportunity to develop into menacing rivals for the possession of the Tarim valley: on the other hand, South China was considerably influenced by Indian and Cambodian civilization, and found in the South Seas generally plenty to compensate her for ignorance of what was going on in the north, where mixed and even foreign 'dynasties' (after the Visigoth, Ostrogoth, and Vandal counter-types) displaced and succeeded each other with bewildering rapidity, and where for a time genuine Turks and Tibetans reigned as Sons of Heaven in the most ancient capitals, just as rival Caesars set up in great cities like Paris or Cologne.

The T'ang Period

The great T'ang dynasty (roughly A. D. 600-900) put an end to this confusion, but had to fight hard for the possession

of the unified Chinese throne now once more established at Sianfu. The Cantonese to this day style themselves 'men of T'ang', speaking 'the T'ang language': in fact, the two conquering dynasties of Han and T'ang alone possess glorious memories. The latter did over again, but more thoroughly and intelligently, the conquering work of the former. Both Turks and Tibetans, it is true, occupied the Chinese capital for short periods even in T'ang times, but in the end cultivated persistency prevailed, and after 200 years of fighting both powers were driven off the Chinese frontiers for good. One branch of the Turks adopted the Persian religion of Manichæus, and protected it in China if they did not introduce it: Pelliot has recently unearthed from the desert a hidden store of ancient books proving this quite clearly. Mussulmans made their first appearance in China; ambassadors from the Abbaside caliphs appeared at the court of China, and Arab troops even took part in various 'Siamese' and Ouigour-Turk campaigns on the southern and northern Tibetan frontiers. Christian missions from Syria shared in the privileges accorded to Islam and Persia; the eighth-century Nestorian stone still standing near Sianfu bears striking witness to the fact. Mongolia and Manchuria were both brought under some sort of control if not actually or administratively conquered: at one time even Persia and the Pamir regions were parcelled out and indirectly ruled under native kings or princes, and one Persian prince Feroze actually fled to China for protection against foreign enemies, a triangular duel between the Turks, Arabs, and China subsequently taking place for the possession of that kingdom. Balti was occupied about this time, but Tibet succeeded for some generations in imposing equality terms on China, the stone documents evidencing which were found still *in situ* at Lhasa by our punitive expedition of 1904-5. Nepaul was utilized, and through it a Chinese army marched to the temporary conquest of offending Indian territory. Cochin China, Loochoo, Japan, and Korea were all under the influence, educational and political, of the T'ang court.

The Sung Dynasty

Like all 'celestial' dynasties, native or Tartar, the house of T'ang gradually grew decrepit under corrupt court influences, and the various Tartar powers accordingly took the opportunity to recover themselves; for fifty years or more (900-960) a series of ephemeral dynasties, founded by *pronunciamento* generals, ruled in Old China, whilst the rest of the stricken empire became a prey to minor military adventurers who set up as kings at Canton, Foochow, Soochow, Nanking, Hangchow, and other places—sixteen in all—until at last, in 960, the soldiers of one capable general in the field acclaimed him as Emperor of all China with the dynastic title of Sung. The policy of the polished and highly literary Sung dynasty from first to last was to avoid foreign complications and to withdraw the frontiers to more natural limits. In an inglorious way this unenterprising policy succeeded, inasmuch as for 300 years the dynasty and its ruling classes managed to drag out a fairly comfortable if worried existence.

But powerful Tibetan and Tartar powers gradually rallied and formed a serious menace along the whole line of the great wall; China's political influence in High Asia, Turkestan, Tibet proper, India, Nepaul, Indo-China, Korea, and Japan almost entirely disappeared, and the Sung dynasty itself was at last driven over the Yangtse with capital at Hangchow.

The Yüan or Mongol Dynasty

This was its plight when Marco Polo was first at the court of Kublai Khan. The Mongol-Manchu Kitans (Polo's Cathayans) had gradually formed a North China empire from the Amur to Peking; after several centuries of rule the Manchu-Nüchêns (Polo's Djurdji) drove out their Cathayan overlords—part of whom fled west and founded the Karakitan empire in Persia—extended their Chinese conquests, and finally shared the whole of China with the Sungs (Marco Polo's Manzi, meaning 'southerners'). The vassal Mongols of the Onon River in due course revolted

against their Djurdji masters, just as the latter had done against the Cathayans, and taking possession of their whole empire, added to it their own deserts, and extended their further desert conquests to Persia, India, and Russia. The first few Mongol Khans controlled their vast possessions from Karakorum (near the modern Outer Mongol capital, Urga); but after the fourth Khan, Genghiz' grandson Kublai, succeeded to the throne in 1260, his generals set to work to conquer the Manzi empire too. By 1280 Kublai was firmly seated on his world throne at Cambaluc (Peking), which city had already been one of the chief capitals of the two other Tartar dynasties just mentioned for over 300 years.

Although Kublai's empire nominally extended over all the dominions dominated by the Han and T'ang dynasties, with the addition of much more both by land and by sea, his sway soon proved ineffective over his kinsmen and vassals in Russia, Persia, Turkestan, Manchuria, and even in the greater part of Tibet and Mongolia. He failed in his attempt to conquer Japan, a proud and sturdy country which, however ready to profit educationally by the facilities accorded to it under the T'ang and Sung monarchs of China, had as a matter of fact never paid real tribute with its polite missions, or consciously done real homage. None of Kublai's successors exhibited his capacity. Russian guards and Persian ministers were freely employed amongst various Tartars and miscellaneous foreigners by all the Mongol rulers, but very little was done for the material welfare or moral progress of the people of China, who ranked lowest in the official scale, and were accordingly quite ripe for revolt when an ex-Buddhist priest, hailing from Old China, placed himself at the head of the malcontents, and soon succeeded in driving the whole of the Mongol hordes back to their native deserts.

The Ming Dynasty

In 1368 a native Chinese dynasty was then once more on the throne at Nanking (i.e. 'southern metropolis'), the emperor's ablest son ruling as a sort of viceroy at Peking (i.e.

the ' northern metropolis '). The leading political features of this native dynasty of Ming (' Bright ') were (1) incessant struggles with all branches of the Mongols along the whole line of the Great Wall—in fact, a third edition of the Han struggles with the Huns and the T'ang struggles with the Turks ; (2) a vast extension of China's sea influence and trade as far as the coasts of Africa and the Red Sea, the Persian Gulf, the Indian and South Seas, and at last Formosa ; (3) relations with Tamerlane and several other rulers in the Persian world ; (4) the entire disappearance of all record concerning Christianity, Islam, Manichaeism, mediaeval Europeans including Russians, and Manchuria. Japan was at first supposed to pay tribute, but in reality harried the Chinese coasts unmercifully for 200 years : China's seclusion really begins with the later and weaker rulers of the Ming dynasty, one of whose emperors was even carried off to Tartary by the enterprising Mongols. The Mings, however, got to know much more of Tibet, from a diplomatic religious point of view, than any previous dynasty had done, though the priestly rulers at Lhasa knew well how to maintain their own administrative independence, besides carrying their religious influence for their own purposes into Mongolia, and thus acquiring a political weight in China that has endured ever since, and still counts for much.

Eunuchs and court favourites undermined the ruling capacity of the Ming dynasty as they had that of most other Chinese dynasties. Weakened already by costly and incessant struggles with the Mongols, the incapable frontier generals were scarcely aware of even the existence of the Manchus—a petty branch of the once powerful Djurdji—until this organized military race suddenly came knocking at the northern door, armed with nothing more formidable than powerful bows and arrows. Towards the close of the Ming dynasty, Italian, French, and other Jesuits, following in the wake of Portuguese, Spanish, and Dutch trading corsairs, had succeeded in establishing themselves in China, and even at Peking, where their services were found useful in correcting

the Arab calendar, of which the northern Chinese had made use for many centuries. Some of these Jesuits instructed the Ming generals in the use of firearms, which had been neglected for centuries in both China and Tartary, notwithstanding that Kublai Khan had imported them from Persia, and used them with effect during his conquest of China.

The Ch'ing or Manchu Dynasty

When subsequently the Manchus gained possession of the Ming throne, the same Jesuits were equally accommodating to their new masters. The Manchu conquest was a result of universal tyranny and peculation. Rebellions broke out, and one formidable leader succeeded in making his way into Peking; the Emperor committed suicide, and one of the Emperor's generals against the Manchus then conceived the desperate idea of inviting the well-organized enemy to accept service against the rebels. No sooner were the Manchus in Peking than, under pretext that there were no direct imperial heirs left, they announced themselves as the manifestly chosen of Heaven. Thence they proceeded cautiously, step by step, to the conquest of China, securing the co-operation of the best Chinese generals and their armies by liberal treatment, and even by enrolling large bodies of pure Chinese in the Manchu military organization, thus placing this limited branch of them, like genuine Manchus, beyond the civil law. The only 'tyrannical' act the Manchus indulged in on a large scale was making the use by men of the Tartar queue or 'pigtail' compulsory under pain of death. The eastern Mongols had been cajoled over, and Korea politically subdued before the entry into Peking. China Proper once reduced, the Manchus proceeded to the organization of Formosa, hitherto only vaguely known as the resort of pirates, Chinese, Dutch, Japanese, or other; then to the reduction of the western Mongols and Turkestan, making use of the Dalai Lama's religious authority whenever it suited them. Simultaneously with the Manchus the Russians appeared on the scene, but were outmatched by the Manchus both in arms and diplomacy,

and kept at arm's length for 200 years, i. e. till 1860. Tibet proving recalcitrant, Manchu armies succeeded (for the first time in imperial history) in imposing the Emperor's will upon Lhasa, and, in order to check Mongol intrigue, even the souls of lamas and saints were only allowed to be 're-embodied', subject to Manchu approval, in children of harmless families.

Nepaul coming to blows with Tibet was, 150 years ago, practically conquered, and made tributary under an easy-going arrangement which endures to this day. Manchu influence can scarcely be said to have passed either the Himalayas or the Pamirs, though on various occasions of Mussulman Khodjo rebellion the weight of the Peking hand has been felt in Kokand, Badakshan, Bokhara, Balti, &c. India has from first to last been politically ignored, and Japan most prudently left severely alone, this aloofness being reciprocal previous to 1870. Annam, Tonkin, Laos, Siam, and Burma have all at different periods experienced military or diplomatic pressure, but in these directions Manchu arms have never gone beyond more or less serious demonstrations, from which they were generally content to retire with the empty reward of more or less voluntary tribute. Korea was faithful throughout to the Manchus, as she had been to the Mings.

II. RECENT HISTORY

Manchu conquests in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries—Revolts in the reign of Chia Ch'ing—The English factories and embassies—Insurrection in Kashgaria—The first China war—The T'ai-p'ing rebellion—The second China war—Suppression of the T'ai-p'ing rebellion—Mohammedan rebellions—The Tientsin riot—The Chefoo Convention—Reconquest of Kashgaria—Opening of Korea—The French in Tonkin—The war with Japan—Foreign spheres of influence and the 'Open Door'—Resumption of power by the Empress-Dowager—The Boxer Rising—The Russo-Japanese war—Modern reforms—Accession of the last Manchu emperor—The Revolution of 1911 and foundation of the Chinese Republic—Table of the Chinese dynasties.

Manchu Conquests in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries

After the great rebellion of the Three Vassal Princes, which spread through eleven provinces and was only crushed by

the coolness and determination of the Emperor K'ang Hsi, China enjoyed a lengthy period of peace and prosperity, as evidenced by an enormous increase in population. In 1683, Formosa was finally subjugated, and a year or two later, after some fighting on the Amur, the Russo-Chinese frontier was defined by treaty. Several wars were waged against the tribes of Inner and Outer Mongolia—Khalkhas, Dzungars, and Eleuths—which resulted in the establishment of Chinese authority over the whole of that vast region. Burma and Tibet were also invaded and brought under Chinese suzerainty; and finally, under the Emperor Ch'ien Lung, came the conquest of Eastern Turkestan, known as Sinkiang or the New Dominion. But all these were external wars little felt by the nation at large, especially as under the careful administration of Ch'ien Lung and his predecessors taxation was light and the treasury full to overflowing. There were troubles with the Miaotzü aborigines of the south-west in 1735 and 1739, and again with the border tribes of West Szechwan in 1746; but as a whole the eighteenth century was a period of tranquillity almost unexampled in Chinese history.

Revolts in the reign of Chia Ch'ing (1796–1821)

No sooner, however, had the firm hand of Ch'ien Lung been withdrawn by his abdication in 1795 than an era of insurrection began, which with but few intermissions may be said to have lasted until the closing years of the Manchu dynasty. First came another widespread revolt of the Miaotzü in Kweichow and Hunan, which was put down with great difficulty owing to the mountains and forests covering that part of the country. A more serious rebellion, however, was that fomented by the White Lily sect, a secret society which had originally been founded in opposition to the Mongol domination, and was now revived in order to get rid of the Manchus. It broke out in western Hupeh in 1796, and for nearly nine years taxed China's resources to the utmost. At one time or another the rebels were conducting campaigns in Hunan,

Szechwan, Shensi, and Kansu, and the conflict was greatly prolonged by the corrupt dealings of the powerful Manchu minister Ho-shên. It was finally brought to an end by Generals Galehtengpo and Teoutai. About this time pirates were a constant source of danger to shipping, and one buccaneer named Ts'ai Ch'ien sailed up and down the coast for years, preying upon Chinese commerce, until his ships were surrounded and sunk near Amoy. In 1813 one of the leaders of the Heavenly Reason Society, in league with the eunuchs, made a bold attempt to get possession of the Forbidden City in the Emperor's absence. At the same time another party was to attack Peking from without. The plot failed, but serious risings took place in several cities of Chihli and Shantung.

The English Factories and Embassies

While the Manchus were struggling with internal rebellion, their relations with the Western Powers, especially Great Britain, were becoming more and more embittered. The Portuguese and the Dutch were the first European traders to reach China, but though the former settled down in Macao, and the latter gained temporary possession of Formosa, the Chinese Government had but little serious trouble with either. The English, on the other hand, were less complaisant in yielding to Chinese pretensions, and innumerable causes of friction occurred. In 1685 the East India Company succeeded in establishing a 'factory' (i. e. the residence and office of a factor) for trading purposes at Canton, and the year 1720 saw the birth of the Co-hong (literally, 'public firm') system at the same place. This was an organization of native merchants to regulate the prices of commodities in their own interest, and it soon received official backing. Later on, it became a purely Government organization, the merchants assuming control and serving as sole intermediaries between the Chinese Government and the foreign traders. In this form the system continued until the Treaty of Nanking in 1842. With a view to redressing numerous grievances and

placing trade on a more satisfactory basis, Lord Macartney was sent as British Envoy to Peking, where he arrived in August 1793. He was received with great civility, but not a single item of business was even discussed. Lord Amherst's embassy in 1816 met with even less success, being denied an audience and summarily dismissed from Peking.

Insurrection in Kashgaria (1825-30)

In 1820 the Emperor Chia Ch'ing died, and left both his throne and his misfortunes to his second son, who took the name Tao Kuang. The new Emperor was superior in moral character to his father, but unfortunately inherited his prejudice against foreigners. The first part of his reign was occupied with a war for the possession of Kashgaria. Jehangir, a member of the old Khoja family of Kashgar, took advantage of the discontent prevailing amongst the Mohammedans of the country to advance his own claims to the throne. He was energetically seconded by Mohammed Ali, Khan of Khokand, and also secured the support of the Khirgiz. The first campaign turned out unfavourably for Jehangir, but in 1826 he entered the disputed territory with a large army at his back and proclaimed himself Sultan; six months later the Chinese returned in force and retook Kashgar. The war was renewed in 1828, when Jehangir was taken prisoner and sent to his death in Peking. China had still to reckon with Mohammed Ali, whose army invaded Kashgaria in 1830, but eventually peace was concluded with concessions on both sides, and Khokand promised to restrain the Khoja princes in her territory.

The First China War and the Treaty of Nanking (1842)

With the expiration of the East India Company's charter in 1834, and the appointment of Lord Napier as Superintendent of the China trade, a quarrel with England arose which ended at last in open war. The nominal cause was the trade in opium, which China was anxious to stamp out, not

so much on moral grounds as on account of the alarming efflux of silver which it involved. But the real cause of the conflict lay deeper. With the growth of intercourse between Europe and the Far East it had become an imperative necessity to break down the high wall of obstinacy and arrogance with which China had encircled herself. The Opium War was only the beginning of a struggle which lasted for 20 years, and it was fought to decide the national and commercial relations which should exist between the East and the West. On proceeding to Canton without the usual application to the hong merchants Lord Napier found himself denied access to the Viceroy, and was obliged to retire to Macao, where he died shortly after. Captain Elliot became Superintendent in 1836. He was permitted to reside at Canton, but in spite of his conciliatory attitude there was interminable wrangling and bargaining throughout his tenure of office. Commissioner Lin arrived at Canton in 1839, and at once seized and destroyed 20,000 chests of opium, also requiring every foreign merchant to bind himself under pain of death not to engage in the opium trade for the future. Elliot objected, whereupon Lin retorted by cutting off supplies. The British retreated to Hongkong, and hostilities commenced. In the spring of 1840 large military and naval forces were assembled off the coast under Sir George Bremer, who occupied Chusan, and was only kept away from Peking by the diplomacy of Ch'i-shan. The Bogue forts at the mouth of the Canton River had to be taken three times within a few months, and the city of Canton was on the verge of capture before the authorities realized the hopelessness of the situation and agreed to pay a ransom of six million dollars. Thereupon the British withdrew; but the question of further intercourse was still unsettled, and Sir Henry Pottinger, who had superseded Captain Elliot, determined to carry the war into the north. A number of towns along the coast were taken in quick succession, and preparations were made for an expedition up the Yangtse. Brave though fruitless resistance was offered at Woosung and Chin-kiang, but when Nanking was reached in August 1842 the

Chinese at last gave way, and a treaty of peace was signed in that month. Five coast towns (Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai) were to be opened to foreign trade, Hongkong was to be ceded, and an indemnity of \$21,000,000 paid to Great Britain, and official correspondence was henceforth to be conducted on equal terms. It was soon obvious, however, that the Chinese had not really learned their lesson : outrages and disturbances were still frequent, and more than once it needed all the sagacity of the Manchu High Commissioner Ch'i-ying to avert an open rupture.

The T'ai-p'ing Rebellion

The Emperor Tao Kuang died in 1850, and was succeeded by his fourth son Hsien Fêng, a youth of nineteen, who continued the short-sighted conservative policy of his predecessors. Just about this time a rebellion broke out in Kwangsi which was destined to have momentous results and to bring the Manchu dynasty within an ace of destruction. A religious crusade in its inception, started by a quasi-Christian fanatic called Hung Hsiu-ch'üan, it soon found itself in collision with the Government, and met at first with scanty success. Lack of food determined the rebels in 1852 to make a move towards the richer provinces of the north, and passing over the border of Kwangtung into Hunan they captured a number of cities along the Hsiang River. Though unable to take Changsha they continued their march to the Yangtse, crossing the Tung-t'ing Lake and storming the important cities of Wuchang and Hanyang. Then, sailing down the Yangtse, they were soon in possession of Anking, and in March 1853 they seized Nanking itself, which was to be their capital and chief stronghold for the next eleven years. Hung Hsiu-ch'üan now proclaimed himself *T'ien Wang* or Heavenly King, and inaugurated the T'ai-p'ing dynasty. Four assistant Wangs or Princes were appointed to control the civil administration and take command of the armies ; their number was afterwards enormously increased. A strong force was immediately

sent north to make an attempt on Peking, but was brought to a standstill in the neighbourhood of Tientsin, and ultimately compelled to return to Nanking in 1855. Meanwhile the Imperialists gradually ousted the rebels from most of the towns on the Yangtse, so that at last they were confined to a narrow strip of country between Anking and Nanking, both of which cities were closely beleaguered. The native city of Shanghai was in the hands of the rebels for a year and a half, but was finally recaptured with the aid of the French. By 1858 the whole rebellion had been got well in hand and would probably have collapsed but for the outbreak of a second war between China and Great Britain.

The Second China War and the Treaty of Tientsin (1860)

The free entry into Canton, secured by the Treaty of Nanking, was still denied to foreign traders, and Yeh Ming-shên, the bigoted and ignorant High Commissioner, formed the only channel of communication by which the Government could be approached. Under such circumstances a renewal of hostilities was almost inevitable, and the occasion was given when, in October 1856, a lorcha or Chinese-rigged vessel flying the British flag was boarded in the Canton river, the flag hauled down and the whole crew carried off. Redress was refused, so the English seized the Bogue forts and bombarded Canton itself. The Indian Mutiny having necessitated the diversion of troops intended for China, further operations were delayed until December 1857, when the city was captured by a joint naval expedition from England and France, and Commissioner Yeh made prisoner. In the following summer the Taku forts were taken without much difficulty by the Allied fleets, and the Treaty of Tientsin was signed on June 26. It was agreed that a British Minister should reside at Peking and that foreigners should be permitted to travel in the interior; an indemnity was exacted, and five new ports were to be thrown open. The question of the Customs Tariff was settled at Shanghai a few months later,

an important feature being the legalization of the opium trade. A regrettable incident of the negotiations at Tientsin was the disgrace and suicide of the honest and liberal-minded Ch'i-ying.

In the following year the ambassadors sent to exchange the ratifications of the Treaty found the mouth of the Pei Ho blocked, and they were requested to travel to Peking by another route commonly used by envoys bearing tribute. Instead of complying Admiral Hope attempted to force a passage with thirteen gunboats, with the result that two were sunk and a large number of men killed and wounded. A formidable expedition of 20,000 men was now equipped by England and France, and landed at Pehtang on August 2, 1860. The Mongolian cavalry under Prince Sengalintsin having been dispersed, the Taku forts were taken in the rear and captured after stubborn resistance. The Allied fleet then moved up the river to Tientsin, and an advance was made on Peking. An ambushade prepared by the Chinese at Tungchow was a failure, but the interpreter Parkes and a small party of foreigners fell into the enemy's hands while trying to arrange an armistice. They were tortured and carried to Peking, the survivors not being returned until two more battles had been fought at Changkiawan and Palikiao and the French had taken possession of the Emperor's summer palace, which was ruthlessly plundered and burnt.

On October 13 Peking was for the first time occupied by European soldiers, and a new treaty was concluded there with Prince Kung, the Emperor having fled to Jehol. The war indemnity was increased to eight million taels for each of the Allies; Kowloon, on the mainland opposite Hongkong, was ceded to Great Britain, and Tientsin was added to the list of open ports. A clause in the French treaty gave Catholic missionaries a right to own property in the interior of China. At the same time Russia demanded and obtained as the price of her mediation the Trans-Ussuri territory on the north-east of Manchuria. Hsien Fêng died shortly afterwards, when the Court returned to Peking, and Prince Kung by a *coup d'état*

secured the control of the government to himself and the two Empresses-Dowager, Tz'ü-an, the Emperor's widow, and Tz'ü-hsi, the mother of the boy-emperor T'ung Chih. The Tsungli Yamên or Chinese Foreign Office was created, and remained for the next forty years a body second only in importance to the Grand Council.

Suppression of the T'ai-p'ing Rebellion (1864)

Meanwhile the T'ai-p'ing Rebellion had taken on a new lease of life, owing partly to the other embarrassments of the Government and partly to the rise of two skilful leaders, Ying Wang and Chung Wang. In 1858 the former retook Lüchowfu in Anhwei and inflicted a crushing defeat on the Hunanese volunteer army at Sanho. In spite of these successes the general outlook was not promising for the rebels, for the siege of Nanking was being pressed more vigorously than ever, and at the beginning of 1860 its fall seemed imminent. At this critical moment Chung Wang by a clever ruse succeeded in drawing off part of the investing forces, and then, in concert with the defenders of the city, fell upon the weakened remnant of the Imperialist army and routed it with great slaughter. Thus the siege was raised, and in a very short time the rebels had overrun nearly the whole of South Kiangsu and North Chekiang, capturing the important cities of Soochow and Hangchow, and seriously threatening Shanghai. Here, however, they met with a stubborn resistance, and it was the failure of their efforts at this point that really led to their ultimate ruin.

A small force of Europeans and Manila men for the defence of Shanghai and the reconquest of the surrounding territory was organized by the American, Ward, who was victorious in many small engagements. Later on the 'Ever Victorious Army', as it was called, was composed mostly of Chinese troops officered by Europeans. Though it seems never to have comprised more than 5,000 men, it played a considerable part in the suppression of the rebellion. Tsêng Kuo-fan, the

hero of the Hunanese army, was now made Viceroy of Liangkang (Kiangsu, Anhwei, and Kiangsi), and set to work to reduce Anking in order to regain control of the Yangtse. Its fall, in September 1861, was perhaps the turning-point of the war. Shanghai and its neighbourhood being still in danger, an army for its defence was raised in Anhwei by Li Hung-chang, who henceforth worked in co-operation with Gordon, the new commander of the Ever Victorious Army. One by one the rebel strongholds in South Kiangsu were recaptured, until at last, in November 1863, Soochow itself was completely invested. The city capitulated, and the Wangs defending it were treacherously put to death by Li Hung-chang, which caused Gordon temporarily to resign his command. Nanking was desperately defended by Chung Wang to the last, and after its capture in July 1864, though desultory fighting still went on in several provinces, the great T'ai-p'ing Rebellion was practically at an end. T'ien Wang took poison, and his young son was put to death.

Mohammedan Rebellions in Kansu, Shensi, and Yunnan
(1867-73)

Though the Manchus had weathered the most perilous storm that ever threatened their dynasty the next few years were by no means peaceful. Even while the South was in the throes of rebellion mounted bandits, known as Nien-fei, were causing much trouble in the provinces of Shantung, Hunan, Anhwei, and southern Chihli; and it was not until 1868 that they were finally suppressed by the exertions of Tsêng Kuo-fan, Li Hung-chang, and Tso Tsung-t'ang, a brilliant protégé of the first-named. Two Mohammedan insurrections, both of a formidable character, next claimed attention. One of these raged for eleven years in Shensi and Kansu, and was crushed at Suchow in 1873 by Tso Tsung-t'ang. The other, known as the Panthay Rebellion, broke out in 1867 in Yunnan. The Panthays were a Mohammedan tribe who, taking advantage of the T'ai-p'ing troubles, had gained complete possession of

western Yunnan, and made Talifu their capital under the rule of Tu Wên-hsiu, better known as Sultan Suleiman. Reduced to extremities in 1873, Tu Wên-hsiu gave himself up to the Chinese on condition that his subjects should be spared. The promise was violated, and a terrible massacre ensued.

Tientsin Massacre (1870)

In June 1870 there occurred in Tientsin the most serious anti-foreign riot that had yet taken place. It was provoked by unfounded rumours of the kidnapping of children by the Sisters of Charity belonging to the Roman Catholic Orphanage, and altogether some twenty foreigners were killed. Compensation was exacted, and a high official was sent to make apologies to the French Government.

The Chefoo Convention (1876)

The Emperor T'ung Chih died in January 1875, and the Empress-Dowager Tz'ü Hsi proclaimed as his successor the infant son of Hsien Fêng's youngest brother, thus securing to herself another long lease of power. When Kuang Hsü came to the throne China was once more on the verge of war with Great Britain owing to the murder of Margary, a consular official who had been sent to open up a trade route between Yunnan and Burma. After prolonged negotiations, however, the Chefoo Convention was drawn up and signed in September 1876 by Li Hung-chang and Sir Thomas Wade. An indemnity was paid, and several more ports were opened to consular residence and trade. In the same year a railway was built between Shanghai and Woosung, but it was purchased and torn up by the Chinese Government.

Reconquest of Kashgaria (1877)

Ever since the fall of Suchow Kan in 1873 great preparations had been made for a campaign to recover Kashgaria, which had been seized by the Mohammedan leader YakooB Beg. In 1876 Tso Tsung-t'ang began his wonderful advance through

the heart of Central Asia, and in the following year the Chinese armies reached Kashgar, having succeeded in beating down all opposition and reconquering the whole of the New Dominion. A demand was now made for the return of Ili, which Russia had occupied with a promise to restore it to China as soon as she was capable of maintaining order. The envoy to Petrograd, however, concluded such an unfavourable treaty that he was actually sentenced to death, and negotiations had to be re-opened by the Marquis Tsêng, son of Tsêng Kuo-fan, whose diplomacy eventually regained nearly the whole of the disputed territory for China.

Opening of Korea (1875)

A new menace to peace now began to loom upon the horizon. After centuries of seclusion the 'Hermit Kingdom' of Korea had been thrown open to external trade and intercourse in 1875, since when two bitterly hostile factions—the pro-Japanese party of progress and the conservative party which still looked to China for protection—had been struggling for mastery. Armed conflicts took place in 1882, and again in 1884; on both occasions the Japanese Legation was burned, and the minister forced to fight his way from Seoul to the sea. For each of these outrages an indemnity had to be paid, and an agreement was made between Japan and China that neither country was to send an armed force into Korea without informing the other.

The French in Tonkin (1884-5)

At the same time complications arose in the south. The French had been exerting steady pressure on Tonkin, lying between Annam and China, until in 1884 they annihilated a body of irregular Chinese troops, known as the Black Flags, in the battle of Bacninh, and were in their turn severely repulsed at Langson. Admiral Courbet at once proceeded to blockade Formosa, and sailing up the Min river destroyed a fleet of eleven Chinese warships in front of Foochow Arsenal

The state of reprisals that followed (for war was never formally declared) lingered on until June 1885, after some inconclusive fighting in Formosa and Tonkin. No indemnity was paid, but the Chinese gave up all claim to Tonkin. One consequence of these hostilities was that a number of reforms were introduced into the Chinese army and navy. The customs service under Sir Robert Hart was greatly developed; and telegraphic communication was established between Yunnan and Peking. In 1886 the Chinese claims on Burma were relinquished. For a few years after the war with France China showed some signs of an awakening; but with the death of Prince Chun, father of the emperor, and other enlightened statesmen, a period of reaction set in. Anti-foreign feeling reached a high pitch in the Yangtse Basin, and in 1891 rioting broke out at several places in Kiangsu and Anhwei.

The War with Japan (1894-5)

Meanwhile, the unrest in Korea was steadily growing. A religious sect known as the Tong Haks had arisen in much the same way as the T'ai-p'ings in China, and by 1894 they were openly defying the authority of the Government. Korea having appealed to her suzerain for help, China responded by sending men-of-war and troops to the country, a move which was immediately countered by a much larger expedition on the part of the Japanese. The question was soon narrowed down to this: which of the two rival powers should withdraw her troops first? Japan insisted upon a complete reorganization of the Korean government, but China would not agree; and while negotiations were in progress the Japanese sank the transport Kowshing as it was bringing Chinese reinforcements to Korea. War now began in earnest, and in September a large Chinese army was routed at Pyeng-yang and driven back across the Yalu river. A few days later the hostile fleets met near the mouth of the same river, and after a stubborn fight, in which four Chinese cruisers were sunk, the shattered remnant fled to Port Arthur. This important fortress and

naval base was soon after captured with astonishing ease, pointing to treachery, and another battle resulted in the loss of Weihaiwei in Shantung, with the remainder of the Chinese fleet. The gallant Admiral Ting committed suicide immediately after his surrender.

The veteran statesman Li Hung-chang was sent to Shimoda to sue for peace, which was concluded in April 1895. The terms were severe, though probably less so than they would have been but for a murderous attempt on the envoy by a Japanese fanatic, which gained him much sympathy. Korea was declared independent; the Liaotung Peninsula and the island of Formosa were ceded to Japan; a war indemnity of 200 million taels was exacted, and new treaty ports were opened to commerce. Russia, however, intervened, and backed by Germany and France, while England stood aloof, forced Japan to return the Liaotung Peninsula to China, and to accept an increased indemnity as compensation.

Foreign Spheres of Influence and the 'Open Door'

Of all China's foreign wars the one with Japan had the most disastrous effects. It swept away her equipment as a military power, reduced her prestige to the lowest ebb, and revealed her weakness to the world. The next five years were full of internal unrest and anti-foreign agitation. Germany seized Kiaochow, with the excellent harbour of Tsingtau, as compensation for the murder of two of her missionaries; Russia obtained the lease of Port Arthur; Weihaiwei was leased on the same terms to Great Britain, and Kwangchowwan (opposite the island of Hainan) to France. In addition each great Power had a part of China earmarked for exploitation. Germany's 'sphere of influence' was Shantung, Russia claimed all railway concessions north of the Great Wall, Great Britain was to be supreme in the Yangtse Valley, and France secured similar privileges in Yunnan and Kwangsi. In 1899, however, the policy of the Open Door, having for its object the maintenance of China's integrity and the assurance

of equal rights to all throughout the Empire, was successfully established by the United States backed up by the British Government.

Resumption of Power by the Empress Dowager (1898)

In the summer of 1898, at the height of the alarm caused by foreign aggression, a succession of drastic reform edicts was issued by the Emperor Kuang Hsü, who had come under the influence of the Cantonese leader of the progressive party, K'ang Yu-wei. It was decreed that the old classical examinations for the Government service should be profoundly modified by the introduction of 'western learning', that temples and monasteries should be converted into public schools, that many superfluous offices both within and without the capital should be abolished, and the military system completely reorganized. In dire dismay the place-holders and supporters of the old régime turned to the Empress-Dowager, who was living in retirement. Having secured the co-operation of the army, she suddenly returned to Peking, seized the person of the Emperor, whom she forced to sign an edict announcing his own abdication, and assumed the regency herself. All the reforms were rescinded by a stroke of the pen, and all persons connected with the new movement were outlawed. Six of the reformers were summarily executed, but K'ang Yu-wei escaped to Hongkong.

The Boxer Rising (1900)

After this closing of the safety-valve of constitutional reform an explosion was inevitable. Smarting under their wrongs the people of Shantung began to organize, and a fanatical sect calling itself *I Ho Ch'üan* (The Patriotic and Harmonious Fist), known to foreigners as the Boxers, sprang into prominence. Their original purpose was to drive out the Manchus and to replace them by a Chinese dynasty, but under the skilful manipulation of the Empress-Dowager all their violence was turned against the hated foreigner and his

works. They were armed for the most part with swords and spears, and gave themselves out as invulnerable. When Yüan Shih-k'ai was made Governor of Shantung he took his division of foreign-drilled troops with him, and soon made things so uncomfortable for the Boxers that they migrated into Chihli and Shansi, spreading terror and destruction as they went. Towards the end of May 1900 the situation in North China had become very critical. Telegraphs and railways were torn up, Tientsin was threatened, and the Legations at Peking were entirely cut off from the outer world.

An attempt to reinforce the Legation guards was made by Admiral Seymour in June, but he was compelled to fall back on Tientsin with heavy losses. The Taku forts were taken after a severe engagement by an allied squadron of warships, and the foreign settlement at Tientsin was relieved in the nick of time. The native city was then carried by assault, and preparations were made for an advance on Peking, which, however, was unable to start until the beginning of August. Meanwhile the situation in Peking had become very grave. The whole city was practically in the hands of the Boxers, and the Legations were subjected to a fierce though intermittent bombardment. The Government was at the mercy of Prince Tuan and the extreme war party, and the more far-seeing statesmen could only counsel moderation at the peril of their own lives. It was due to them, however, that the full strength of the army was not concentrated on the attack, and that the besieged were from time to time supplied with fresh provisions. The taking of the Taku forts led to a declaration of war against the invaders, and all the foreign Ministers were ordered to leave the capital within twenty-four hours. Fortunately, the fate of the German minister, who was shot dead in the street on his way to the Tsungli Yamên, determined the rest to refuse compliance, and the siege went on until August 14, when the relief expedition, consisting of 15,000 men, arrived before the walls of Peking, which was occupied on the following day. It was generally acknowledged that the honours of the defence of the Legations rested with the

Japanese contingent under Colonel Shiba, who held a vital and exposed part of the position with the utmost skill and tenacity.

Thanks to the sagacity and good faith of the Viceroy, especially in the Yangtse provinces, who disregarded the instructions they received from Peking to exterminate all foreigners, the Boxer rising was restricted almost entirely to Shansi and Chihli, while the rest of China remained comparatively quiet. On the approach of the allies the Emperor, the Empress-Dowager and their entourage fled to Taiyüanfu and thence to Sianfu, which they reached after suffering many hardships. On their return to the capital at the beginning of 1902 it was clear that the Empress-Dowager had taken her lesson to heart, for she reversed her former policy and energetically embraced the cause of reform. After the capture of Peking the city was largely given up to plunder, and the people were treated with much needless barbarity by some of the foreign troops. The terms of the peace protocol which followed were on the whole less harsh than China had reason to expect, though a heavy indemnity was demanded and eleven of the chief culprits were sentenced to death.

The Russo-Japanese War (1904-5)

The dismemberment of the country, however, was averted, in spite of the ominous action of Russia, who insisted on keeping her troops in Manchuria 'until order should be restored'. It soon became evident that she had no intention of evacuating the territory she had occupied, and Japan was driven to demand the fulfilment of her pledge. Russia temporized, and delayed so long in coming to any agreement, even on the respective spheres of influence of the two countries in Korea, that at last the patience of Japan was exhausted.

On the night of February 8, 1904, Admiral Togo attacked the Russian fleet at Port Arthur, sinking two ships and disabling several others. This initial success was followed by an almost unbroken series of Japanese victories by land and

sea. Port Arthur surrendered on January 1, 1905; the Russians were driven back in the battles of Liaoyang and Mukden; and the Baltic fleet, Russia's last hope, was annihilated in the battle of the Sea of Japan, fought on May 27. In the Treaty of Portsmouth, concluded shortly after, Japan gained all the chief objects for which she was fighting: her influence in Korea was declared to be paramount, and Manchuria was to be restored to China.

Modern Reforms

The moral effect of the Russo-Japanese war on the Chinese people was enormous. The demand for reform now became universal, and most of the measures which had led to Kuang Hsü's deposition in 1898 were revived in an even more radical form. One of the most important of these was the entire abrogation of the old examination system and the substitution of schools of different grades and education on modern lines. Translations of foreign works were multiplied, and students were encouraged to seek instruction abroad, in Europe, the United States, and especially Japan. A scheme of military reform was outlined in an Imperial edict, and in 1905 a constitution was promised as soon as the people of China were ready for it. The various departments of State were also reorganized from top to bottom, railways were constructed, the postal and telegraphic systems were taken over by the Government and greatly extended, and stringent edicts were issued against opium and foot-binding, with remarkable results in each case.

China was indeed awakening at last; yet these reforms came too late to save the Manchu dynasty which had brought such unexampled humiliation on the country. The spirit of patriotism, hitherto singularly lacking in the Chinese, had been kindled by national disaster, and the people were indignant when they realized how they had been hoodwinked and misled by their rulers. Anti-foreign agitation gradually died away after 1900, and it became the principal aim of Chinese

patriots to get rid of the Manchu incubus. It is true that the yellow labour question, leading to a boycott of American goods in 1905, threatened China's friendly relations with the United States, but the effect was only temporary. Serious riots and anti-dynastic uprisings in all parts of the country were of constant occurrence in 1907; most of them were fomented by the great revolutionary league called the T'ung Mêng Hui, founded by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, Huang Hsing, and others.

Accession of the Last Manchu Emperor (1908)

In November 1908 the Emperor and Empress-Dowager died within a few hours of each other, and the throne passed to the infant Pu I, whose reign-title was Hsüan T'ung. The next three years saw a return to absolutism under the mask of constitutional reform. The Regent dismissed Yüan Shih-k'ai from office and inaugurated a period of unrestrained Manchu supremacy. Neither the Provincial Assemblies, convoked in 1909, nor the National Assembly, which met for the first time in the following year, possessed any real authority whatsoever, and the election of a parliament was indefinitely postponed.

The Revolution of 1911 and Foundation of the Chinese Republic

The fateful year 1911 opened with an abortive insurrection at Canton, suppressed with great rigour. The nationalization of the Canton-Hankow and Chengtu-Hankow railways involved the borrowing of £4,000,000 from foreign nations, and the people resented the fresh burden about to be placed on their shoulders. Destructive floods in Szechwan increased the discontent, and ere long the province was in rebellion from end to end. In October the accidental explosion of a bomb at Hankow led to the premature outburst of a carefully planned revolution. The insurgents under Li Yüan-hung started with Hankow, Hanyang, and Wuchang in their

possession, and the movement soon spread far and wide throughout the Empire. Yüan Shih-k'ai was recalled in haste to Peking and entrusted with full powers to deal with the situation. This act sealed the doom of the Manchu Court. For although the raw recruits of the revolutionary forces were no match for the northern army, and Yüan had the game in his own hands, he was by no means anxious for a Manchu triumph, and seems to have been careful not to achieve too much. Hanyang was recaptured by the Imperialists, but Nanking fell to the Revolutionists in December, and a peace conference met in Shanghai.

A Provisional Government was set up at Nanking, and Sun Yat-sen elected first President of the new-born Chinese Republic. It was arranged that the Manchu Court should continue to reside at Peking, and that the Emperor should receive an annual allowance of four million dollars after his abdication. After a short time Sun Yat-sen resigned the Presidency in favour of Yüan Shih-k'ai, who was widely acclaimed as the 'strong man' necessary to steer the country through dangerous waters at a very critical epoch. On the whole he governed well, though he excited not wholly undeserved obloquy by his ruthless suppression of the powers of Parliament. This policy quite alienated him from the South, and another revolution was attempted in 1913, but sternly checked, and Sun Yat-sen had to take refuge in Japan. The country as a whole, however, appears to have supported Yüan, and it was not until the beginning of 1916 that a thorough revulsion of feeling was created by his ill-judged decision to assume the imperial title. Popular indignation ran so high that all the arrangements for the ceremony of enthronement had to be cancelled at the last moment. Yüan died not long after, being succeeded in the Presidency by Li Yüan-hung.

The Chinese Dynasties

<i>Name of Dynasty.</i>	<i>Began.</i>	<i>Ended.</i>
The Age of the Five Rulers	B. C. 2852	B. C. 2205
Hsia	2205	1766
Shang or Yin	1766	1122
Chou	1122	255
Ch'in	255	206
Han, Former Han or Western Han	206	A. D. 25
Later Han or Eastern Han	A. D. 25	221
The Three Kingdoms [Minor Han, Wei, Wu]	221	265
Western Chin	265	317
Eastern Chin	317	420
Division between North and South	420	589
[Sung (house of Liu), Ch'i, Liang, Ch'ên, Northern Wei, Western Wei, Eastern Wei, Northern Ch'i, Northern Chou]		
Sui	589	618
T'ang	618	907
The Five Dynasties	907	960
[Posterior Liang, T'ang, Chin, Han, and Chou]		
Sung	960	1280
Yüan	1280	1368
Ming	1368	1644
Ch'ing	1644	1911
Chinese Republic	1912	—

CHAPTER VI

PEOPLE

Population—Races—The Chinese—Native Races—The Manchus—Social Organization—Religion—Primitive Religions—Taoism and Confucianism—Buddhism—Ancestor Worship—Other Religions—Christian Missionary work in China.

NUMBER AND DENSITY OF POPULATION

No accurate census has ever been taken of the population of China, and the more or less careful estimates made from time to time show wide discrepancies. Thus, if we take the Customs Estimate of 1910 and the Census of the Ministry of the Interior made in the same year, we find that the former gives a total of 421,425,000, and the latter 316,271,000.

The census of the Ministry of the Interior (Min-chêng Pu) for 1910 is regarded by competent judges¹ as the most reliable estimate as yet furnished. It is based on a census of families, and the number of persons in a family is computed on a system of averages. The averages have been calculated by the results of a census of heads which has been completed for certain parts of China. It should be added that children below six years of age are not included in the 1910 census, and Mr. Rockhill calculates that their inclusion would bring the total up to 325,000,000 in round numbers.

The distribution of this vast population over the 1,500,000 square miles of China Proper is irregular, varying widely with the geographical position and physical features of the different provinces. Thus the populations of Kansu, Yunnan, and Kuangsi are respectively 40, 58, and 84 persons per square mile, while that of Shantung is 528. The six maritime provinces of Chihli, Shantung, Kiangsu, Chekiang, Fukien, and

¹ See W. W. Rockhill, *T'oung Pao*, vol. xiii, and *The China Year-book*, 1914.

TABLE OF POPULATION, ETC.
(Figures taken from *The China Year-book, 1916*)

Province.	Area, sq. miles.	Census, 1885.	Minchengpu Census, 1910.	Customs Esti- mate, 1910.	Pop. per sq. mile.	Capital of Province.
Anhui	54,826	20,600,000	17,300,000	36,000,000	315	Anking
Chekiang	36,680	11,700,000	17,000,000	11,800,000	463	Hangchow
Chihli	115,830	17,900,000	32,571,000	29,400,000	281	Paoingfu
Fukien	46,332	23,500,000	13,100,000	20,000,000	282	Foochow
Honan	67,954	22,100,000	25,600,000	†	376	Kaifeng
Hunan	83,398	21,000,000	23,600,000	22,000,000	282	Changsha
Hupeh	71,428	33,600,000	24,900,000	34,000,000	348	Wuchang
Kansu	125,483	5,400,000	5,000,000	†	40	Lanchowfu
Kiangsi	69,498	24,500,000	14,500,000	24,534,000	208	Nanchang
Kiangsu	38,610	21,300,000	17,300,000	23,980,000	448	Soochow
Kwangsi	77,220	5,100,000	6,500,000	8,000,000	84	Kweilin
Kwangtung	100,000	29,700,000	27,700,000	32,000,000	277	Canton
Kweichow	67,182	7,700,000	11,300,000	†	168	Kweiyang
Shansi	81,853	10,800,000	10,000,000	†	122	Taiyüanfu
Shantung	55,984	36,500,000	29,600,000	38,000,000	528	Tsinan
Shensi	75,290	3,300,000	8,800,000	†	116	Sianfu
Szechwan	218,533	71,000,000	23,000,000	78,711,000	105	Chengtu
Yunnan	146,714	11,700,000	8,500,000	8,000,000	58	Yünnanfu
Shengking	363,700	—	14,917,000	17,000,000	41	Moukden
Kirin						Kirin
Heilungkiang						{ Aigun
Totals	1,896,515	377,400,000 (without Manchuria)	331,188,000 2,491,000	438,425,000	174	
Sinkiang	—	—	1,700,000	—	—	
Manchu Military Organization	—	—	760,000	—	—	
Dependencies	—	—	6,500,000	—	—	
Tibet (Chinese Estimate)	—	—	342,639,000	—	—	

† Combined population of these five provinces estimated at 55,000,000.

Kuangtung contribute about three-sevenths of the total, with a combined average of 388 persons per square mile. If we take the density of population of the United Kingdom as 372 per square mile, and that of Germany as 312, we can form some idea of the man-power of these provinces.

The table on p. 95 sets out the areas of the provinces and dependencies of the Chinese Republic, and the latest information regarding the population.

RACES

The Chinese

The origin of the Chinese race, which is generally regarded as belonging to the Mongolian family, is still a matter of dispute, some authorities holding that the parent stock came in from the countries which lie north-west of China, others that it was indigenous to Eastern China. One thing, however, is certain, that the Chinese type was formed by the mingling of many races with the original stock,—Tatars, Tibetans, Burmese, Shans, Manchu, and even Arabs and Japanese. The result is a race which is short in stature, seldom exceeding 5 ft. 4 in. in height except in the northern provinces: brachicephalous (i. e. round-headed), with round face, low forehead, high cheek-bones, black almond-shaped eyes which slant upwards and outwards, short flat nose, large mouth, small chin which tends to recede, lank black hair, and yellow skin. These physical characteristics are accompanied by a mental disposition which is on the whole reserved, earnest, and good-natured.

Native Races

In certain parts of China, particularly in the south and west, there is a considerable sprinkling of aboriginal tribes which still maintain their national characteristics. Indeed, it was not till the nineteenth century that their subjugation was seriously taken in hand. The most independent of these are the Lolos of Kweichow and Yunnan, and the kindred Mantze or Lolos of Szechwan.

The Lolos are an Indo-European race, who claim to have come from the region between Tibet and Burma. In contrast with the Chinese they have white skin, hooked nose, brown hair, and grey or blue eyes which are not almond-shaped. They are warriors and hunters, sometimes pastoral, but rarely agricultural. They have their own language, and are nature-worshippers.

The Miaotzü are a nomad and pastoral tribe still found in Yunnan. They claim to have come from the East. In appearance they are shorter and darker than the Chinese, with rounder faces and sharper features.

The Ikias of Kweichow and Kwangsi closely resemble the Miaotzü.

The Hakkas are found chiefly in Kwangtung and Kwangsi, but also in Fukien, Kiangsi, Chehkiang, Formosa, and Hainan. They speak a Chinese dialect, and live in small and scattered groups, except in the prefecture of Chiaying in NE. of Kwangtung, where they have a large settlement.

The Hoklos are found principally in the NE. of Kwangtung, whither they migrated from Fukien. They speak a dialect akin to that which prevails in Fukien, and are a rougher, wilder race than the southern Cantonese. A number of them are employed as chair-bearers at Hongkong.

Other native races of less importance are the Yao of SW. Kwangtung and Hunan; the Sai, Si, or Li of Hainan; the Mosos or Musus of NW. Yunnan; the Lisus of Likiang Fu in Yunnan; the Minchias of Tali Fu in Yunnan; the Sifans of W. Szechwan and Kansu.

The Manchus

Finally, the Manchus, of whom there are approximately 4,000,000 resident in China, were for two hundred and seventy years the dominant race until the revolution of 1911 brought their dynasty to an end. They belong to the Tatar-Mongol tribe which overran Manchuria and thence descended upon China, conquering the country in the middle of the seventeenth century, and terminating the native Ming dynasty. The

Manchus are a more robust and energetic race than the Chinese, though intellectually inferior to them. They do not differ very widely from the latter in appearance and customs, but their eyes are horizontally set instead of oblique, and their women do not practise foot-binding. For long they kept apart as a race of soldiers, practically monopolizing the army and living on tribute ; but since the eighteenth century they have become more and more assimilated by the Chinese, and have lost much of their martial superiority.

SOCIAL ORGANIZATION

The social organization of the Chinese is based on the family, the family, rather than the individual, being the unit, and the head of the family being responsible for the good conduct of its members. Ancestor-worship, which fits in naturally with such a scheme of society, is universal, and its logical consequences are the exaltation of the virtue of filial piety and the attaching of supreme importance to funeral rites. Other characteristics traceable to the same cause are the strong conservative tendencies, the exclusive attitude towards the outside world, and the self-satisfaction with regard to their own civilization, which are inherent in the Chinese race. All social intercourse is marked by elaborate ceremony, the extraordinary value attached to ceremonial rites being well illustrated by the saying that 'all virtues have their source in etiquette'.

Broadly speaking, there are four classes in Chinese society—the literary, agricultural, artisan, and trading classes. Hereditary aristocracy hardly exists, being practically confined to the Imperial family, and its place is taken by a bureaucracy of the official classes.

For many centuries official appointments were made on the results of the State examinations, for success in which the qualifications were literary capacity and a knowledge of the classics. Hence the identity of the governing classes with the *literati*. Outside this limited body the standard of education is low, and the average Chinaman can neither read nor write his own language with fluency.

The position of women is one of inferiority. Marriage is a matter of arrangement between parents, and only at the end of the elaborate marriage ceremonial does the bridegroom see the face of his bride. Polygamy is countenanced, and divorce is obtainable on numerous grounds. Early marriages are the rule, and great importance is attached to male issue, the female children being often regarded with disfavour. Women habitually rouge their faces and paint their eyebrows. Cramping of the feet is practised by all classes of women, though the modern tendency is to discourage it. With regard to clothing the general scheme is very similar for both sexes, viz. a long loose jacket or robe fitting closely at the neck with wide sleeves, and wide short trousers : over the robe shorter jackets are worn according to the weather.

The wearing of a pigtail by men was ordered by the Manchus as a sign of subjection when they conquered China in the middle of the seventeenth century. Since the establishment of the Republic in 1912 the pigtail has been abandoned by the better classes, and will no doubt gradually be discarded by the nation as a whole.

The general standard of living is low. The bulk of the Chinese belong to the peasant class, and owing to the constant division of property among succeeding generations the holdings rule very small. The staple food of the people is rice. Two meals a day are considered sufficient. Beef is not eaten ; mutton is eaten chiefly by the Mohammedans : but there is no limit to the use of other articles of food, except the means to acquire them. The tables of the rich are supplied with a great variety of food, much of which is strange to the European, and Chinese cookery is held in high esteem. Native wines are good. The popular drinks are a kind of beer made from rice and *sam-shu*, a spirit, distilled from the same grain. But the Chinese as a whole are an exceedingly temperate race.

The Chinese are industrious and clever workmen, gifted with great manual dexterity. Labour is cheap and in unlimited supply, and all work that can be done by hand is done in that

manner, machinery being used as little as possible. In this way the difficulty of finding employment for the masses is overcome.

In business the Chinaman is adroit, but eminently reasonable, and appreciates the value of commercial honesty.

In agriculture he obtains wonderful results with primitive implements, and he is an adept at gardening.

RELIGION

In the matter of religion the Chinese as a whole are vague, tolerant, even promiscuous. Provided its teaching does not clash with the law of the land, or involve any political interference, any religion is allowed a hearing. Taoism and Buddhism, the two most popular religious systems in China, though antagonistic in the past, have lived so long side by side in perfect mutual tolerance, and have borrowed so much the one from the other, that they now exist without rivalry and almost without distinction.

Primitive Religions

The earliest religion of primitive China appears to have been monotheistic, recognizing one supreme power, vaguely defined as *t'ien* (heaven), or endowed with more personal attributes under the name of Shang Ti (the lord of heaven). The transition from this to the worship of the heavenly bodies led eventually to pure nature-worship, in which the sun, moon, stars, earth, sea, rivers, &c., were peopled with spirits who dispensed the heat and cold, wind and rain, and all the blessings and afflictions due to natural causes. This nature-worship, though no longer recognized, still tinges the religious observances of the modern Chinese, and it has been in part perpetuated in the State worship of heaven and earth, which was the prerogative of the Emperor.

Side by side with all the other beliefs, and in the main overshadowing them, ancestor-worship has been in general practice in China from time immemorial. It is, in fact, the corner-stone of the Chinese social fabric. We shall return to this subject later.

Taoism and Confucianism

The same century which witnessed the life and teaching of Buddha in India was memorable in China for the founding of two great systems by the two sages Confucius and Lao-tzū, one a philosophy and the other a religion. Confucius, who was born in 551 B. C., built up a code of ethics which still serves the educated classes of China in place of a religion. Though its teaching is secular it recognizes ancestor-worship; and it admits the existence of supernatural powers, though advising men to confine their attention to things which more nearly concern them. Confucianism is a practical philosophy, setting a high moral standard. Its key-note is our duty towards our neighbour,—do unto others as you would they should do unto you.

The Taoist religion claims as its founder the semi-legendary Lao-tzū, who is reputed to have been born about fifty years before Confucius. His doctrine of *Tao* (the way, the right line of conduct) was negative and obscure. Virtue was to be acquired by withdrawing from the contamination of worldly things, by subduing the passions and purifying the soul. In the hands of his disciples the philosophy of Lao-tzū became a religion inculcating the worship of a supreme First Cause, the source of human life, and urging man to purge away all mortal grossness, and so obtain immortality and oneness with the supreme. Veneration for old age, one of the results of ancestor-worship, was already deeply seated in the Chinese mind. Under the Taoists this developed into the worship of longevity. The natural consequence was a search for the elixir of life, leading to the practice of alchemy, magic, and all manner of charlatanry. A host of picturesque fables arose from this quest of the secret of immortality, resulting in the deification of fortunate beings who were reputed to have found the elixir of life, of hermits and sages who lived in mountain solitudes, and the discovery of fairies (*hsien*) and spirits innumerable. At the present day the Taoist priests are little else than sorcerers and magicians, dealers in amulets and spells, who live on the ignorance and superstition of the people.

Although they strenuously opposed the early progress of Buddhism, the Taoists did not hesitate to borrow freely from the Buddhist ritual or to copy their temples, vestments, and priestcraft, when they realized that such things were the necessary paraphernalia of a popular religion. In more recent times Buddhism and Taoism have lived amicably side by side, and their temples are impartially attended by the mass of the Chinese people, who make little or no distinction between the two.

Buddhism

Buddhism was first officially recognized in China by the Han Emperor Ming Ti. He sent a mission to India in A.D. 65, which returned two years later bringing Buddhist priests, writings, and images for the enlightenment of China. A temple was built at Lo-yang, from which the doctrines of the new faith were disseminated. Buddhism was alternately patronized and proscribed by the Court in its early days, and met with bitter opposition from the Taoists; but from the eleventh century onwards it enjoyed comparative immunity, and the three figures representing Confucius, Buddha, and Lao-tzū are frequently depicted in friendly intercourse.

The transcendental side of Buddhism appears to have been little cultivated in China. Indeed it was the Mahayana, the inferior sect, which took root there, and whose doctrines of rewards and punishments, and of further existence beyond the present, obtained a firm hold on the popular mind. These teachings satisfied a spiritual craving for which neither Confucianism nor Taoism had anything to offer. Moreover, the rites which the Buddhists perform in honour of the dead made a special appeal to a nation of ancestor-worshippers. Though in the main degenerate, Buddhism is still universally recognized in China, and the Buddhist temples are thronged by superstitious worshippers anxious to obtain some material benefit or ward off some disaster. Its prayers and invocations retain their Sanskrit forms, and the foreign ritual is followed mechanically and ignorantly by both priests and people.

Buddhism in China has been said 'to be decried by the learned, laughed at by the profligate, yet followed by all'.

Its attitude towards other creeds has been one of the largest tolerance, and it could even find a place in its pantheon for the deities of other religions. The free interchange of ideas between Buddhism and Taoism has already been remarked, and a Chinaman may worship without prejudice at both temples and be at the same time a good follower of Confucius.

Ancestor-Worship and the Cult of the Family

The real religion in China is the cult of the family. 'The doctrines of Confucius and the ceremonial of the State religion, exhibit the speculative, intellectual dogmas of the educated *literati* and thinkers, who have early been taught the high ideal of the Princely Man set forth by their sages. The tenets of Lao-tzū and the sorcery and incantations of his followers show the mystic and marvellous part of the popular belief. Buddhism takes hold of the common life of man, offers relief in times of distress, escape from a future hell at a cheap rate, and employment in a round of prayers, study, or work, ending in the nirvana. But the heart of the nation reposes more upon the rites offered at the family shrine to the two "living divinities" who preside in the hall of ancestors than to all the rest.'¹

Each generation of ancestors is represented by a tablet engraved with the names of father and mother, set up in surroundings which vary in state with the means of the individual. The tablet is worshipped regularly by parents and children together in the privacy of their homes. In April the people flock publicly to the family graves to tend them and to worship. The sincerity of this cult of ancestors is reflected in the national virtues of the Chinese, their cultivation of filial piety, veneration for parents, and in the strengthening of family ties.

In return for the care of their graves and the worship at their shrines the ancestral spirits watch over the material

¹ S. Wells Williams, *The Middle Kingdom*, vol. ii, p. 236.

prosperity of the living, and propitiate the invisible powers which surround them. Hence the scrupulous care that dead relatives should be interred under the most favourable conditions. These conditions, which include the orientation, altitude, outlook, &c., of the grave, are determined by experts in geomancy, who are supposed to understand the direction of the earth currents and all the occult influences grouped under the general head of *fêng-shui* (wind and water); and it is unnecessary to add that the professors of geomancy well know how to exploit the superstitions of their clients. Incidentally, this belief in *fêng-shui* has created very great difficulties in connexion with the erection of high buildings and the construction of railways by Europeans, anything which might be thought to interfere with the mysterious earth and air currents of the graves being obstinately opposed.

It follows, as a matter of course, that funeral rites in China are of an elaborate and costly character, and performed with the utmost ceremony. The requirements of the dead in the spirit world are similar to those of the living. They were met in ancient times by placing in the grave pottery or wooden models of houses, furniture, utensils, cattle, slaves, &c. To-day a less wasteful practice prevails, of burning paper representations of all the necessary paraphernalia at the grave, and so transmitting them to the spirit world. After the coffin has been interred with all due solemnity the tablet inscribed with the dead man's name is brought back to the house and enshrined on the domestic altar. The period of mourning is long, and is even supposed to extend to three years at the death of the head of the family. The mourning colour is white.

Other Religions

Of the other religions which have obtained a footing in China Mohammedanism has the largest following. The adherents of Islam reached China as early as A. D. 628, and continued to arrive by the caravan routes in the north and south-west and the sea routes in the south-east. Their religion was benevolently received and allowed to spread unchecked. The

first mosque was erected in Canton by the colony of Arab traders in that city. It is said that there are now as many as 30,000,000 Mohammedans in China. The number of Christians is placed at about one million and a half, of whom four-fifths belong to the Roman Catholic Church.

Apart from the recognized religions there are numerous deities and saints worshipped by the various trades and professions. The literary class venerates certain gods of literature, and adorns its houses and its persons with emblems of literary success. Soldiers, sailors, physicians, barbers, mummers, &c., all have their patron gods, whose images they worship. Finally, the mass of the people are a prey to all manner of superstitions. They live surrounded by spirits benignant and malignant, which must be approached and appeased by various means,—by the mediation of their ancestors, by prayers and offerings in the temples, by innumerable amulets and charms worn on the person or hung in their houses. It is to meet these supernatural influences, and especially such as cause sickness and material loss, that they invoke the aid of the priests rather than for purposes of devotion. Hence the prevalence of all manner of charlatanry both in and out of the temples.

For the rest the priests move in the background, and interfere but little with the personal affairs of the people. They have practically no political power, and the evils of a political priesthood are scarcely known in China. Throughout their history the Chinese have suffered less than any nation from outbursts of religious fanaticism, and the occasional outbreaks against foreign religions have almost always been due to attempts on the part of the foreigner to extend his influence to civil affairs.

CHRISTIAN MISSIONARY WORK IN CHINA

Apart from the successes won by the Christian missions in their primary object, the conversion of the Chinese, we owe the greater part of our knowledge of the language, literature, history, manners, and customs of the Chinese to the mission-

aries who, by their devotional books and by treatises in almost every department of secular history and science, have served as interpreters between the Far East and the West.

Before the nineteenth century missionary activity in China was confined to the Nestorians and the Roman Catholic societies. The most successful of the latter have been the Jesuits, of whom Matteo Ricci won his way to high esteem in the Emperor's court, while two of his successors, Schall and Verbiest, were appointed president of the Board of Astronomy and Mathematics at Peking.

Since the nineteenth century the Protestant missions have worked, as their statistics show, with increasing energy and success; and incidentally they have added vastly to our information about things Chinese. Not a few of their members have been reckoned scholars even by the Chinese *literati*; and it is only necessary to mention the dictionaries and other works of Morrison, Medhurst, Doolittle, and Wells Williams, the brilliant translations of the Chinese Classics by James Legge, and the writings of Eitel, Faber, Edkins, Chalmers, and Arthur Smith to realize our debt to them.

The Chinese distinguish the teaching of the Roman Catholic from that of the Protestant Churches; *t'ien-chu-chiao* (doctrine of the Lord of Heaven) being their name for the former and *yeh-su-chiao* (doctrine of Jesus) for the latter.

Though it is probable that the Chinese made their first acquaintance with Christianity early in the Christian era, the first recorded attempt to found a Church in China was that of the Nestorians, a sect which established itself in Syria and Persia and penetrated the Chinese Empire early in the sixth century. Moreover the famous Nestorian tablet which was unearthed at Sianfu in 1625 describes the coming of the priest Alopen to China in 635, and further shows that the Nestorians established churches and monasteries there and that they enjoyed the intermittent favour of the Chinese emperors. The tablet itself was erected in 781, and was probably buried in 845, when an Imperial decree was issued suppressing the Nestorians. They lingered on, however, in

parts of China, and seem to have been flourishing in the fourteenth century, though all trace of them had disappeared at the end of the sixteenth century.

Meanwhile the first Roman Catholic missionaries had reached China in the thirteenth century, and the Franciscan, John of Montecorvino, was appointed Archbishop of China in 1307. He had arrived at Cambaluc (Peking) in that year, but the closing of the overland route at the end of the century and the establishment of the native Ming dynasty put an end to the first phase of Roman Catholic activity in China.

The second phase began late in the sixteenth century after the sea route had been secured by the Portuguese, and was marked by the activity of the Jesuits, who did not hesitate to modify their teachings to meet Chinese prejudices. St. Francis Xavier initiated the movement, but he failed to enter China, and died on an island off Kwangtung in 1552. Valignani, however, settled at Macao in 1560, and one of his emissaries, the celebrated Matteo Ricci, succeeded in entering Shaochingfu in 1582, whence he made his way to Nanchang, Soochow, Nanking, and eventually to Peking, which he reached about 1600. There he found favour with the Emperor by means of his astronomical and scientific knowledge, and was honoured with a residence in the Inner City. After his death in 1610 the Jesuits fell into temporary disfavour, but in 1622 Adam Schall regained the imperial esteem and was eventually appointed President of the Board of Astronomy and Mathematics. The same honour was afterwards enjoyed by Verbiest, who came to China in 1659. The great Manchu Emperor, K'ang Hsi, continued to treat the Jesuits with favour; but under his successors, Yung Chêng and Ch'ien Lung, Christianity was banned and its followers persecuted. Moreover the Order of the Jesuits was suppressed in Europe in 1773, and only after its re-establishment in 1822 did the Catholic missions in China begin again to make headway.

The Vincentians or Lazarists and the Franciscans carried on the work on the suppression of the Jesuits, and at the present day there are numerous societies, French, Italian,

Belgian, Spanish, and German, working for the Roman Catholic Church in China. They have partitioned the empire into five regions, in which they have established 50 bishoprics. They have 2,169 priests, two-thirds of whom are European; about 6,000 churches and chapels, and over a million converts.

The most important Roman Catholic centre is at Sikawei, which lies five miles SW. of Shanghai. The church there is said to have been founded at the end of the sixteenth century by Hsü Kuang-ch'i, a Hanlin scholar and a native of Shanghai. In fact the place is named after him, being Hsü-chia-wei (the home of Hsü family). It is now the headquarters of the Shanghai Catholic Mission. It has a university, college, and industrial school, and maintains more than fifty schools in and around Shanghai. It is also celebrated for its Observatory, the meteorological section of which is specially important.

Meanwhile Protestant missionaries had entered the field in the nineteenth century. The first was Robert Morrison, who arrived at Canton in 1807, and was followed by the Americans, Bridgeman and Wells Williams, in 1830 and 1833. The Netherlands Missionary Society was represented by Karl F. Gutzlaff, who worked up the coast from 1831 to 1835 as far as Tientsin. The American, Dr. Peter Parker, landed at Canton in 1834 and opened the first medical mission. The success of the medical missions has been very great, and the statistics given in the *China Mission Year-book*, 1914, show that the Protestant societies supported 264 hospitals and 215 dispensaries which dealt with about 2½ millions of patients between them.

The Opium War in 1839 seriously interfered with missionary progress; but the Treaty of Nanking in 1842 and the opening of the Treaty Ports were signals for a great revival, and numerous new societies were formed. Religious freedom has been guaranteed by a succession of treaties with various European countries from this time onward.

The China War of 1856-60 and the T'ai-p'ing Rebellion which lasted from 1850 to 1864 caused inevitable set-backs;

but after 1860 the Protestant missionaries began to penetrate the interior of China. The China Inland Mission led the way in this endeavour, though little success was achieved until the Chefoo Convention in 1876.

Numerous new societies, both British and foreign, came into existence at the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth ; and the total of those now engaged in Chinese missionary work exceeds one hundred. There have, however, been periods of serious difficulty, as in 1890, during the Chino-Japanese War 1894-5, and more particularly during the Boxer outbreak in 1900. But since the Russo-Japanese War 1904-5 the exclusiveness of the Chinese has given place to a thirst for Western knowledge, and to-day the Chinese Republic is disposed to guarantee full religious liberty to all in China.

Statistics of the Protestant Missions in China in 1912-13, published in the *China Mission Year-book*, 1914, give the following figures : the returns represent over a hundred societies which supply 5,186 foreign workers. The congregations number 3,419 with a total of 356,209 members. There are 2,125 Sunday schools. There are 4,138 elementary schools with 96,371 pupils ; 436 higher elementary schools with 22,279 pupils ; 176 middle schools with 10,386 pupils ; 38 colleges and universities with 3,689 students ; 40 normal training schools with 958 students ; 143 theological schools with 3,524 students ; and 50 industrial institutes with 1,379 pupils.

CHAPTER VII

LANGUAGE AND DIALECTS

Difficulty of Chinese — Dialects — Chinese a monosyllabic language —
The written language—Characters—Syllabary and tones—Advice to
learners of the spoken language.

THE following passage occurs in a contribution to the *Chinese and Japanese Repository* for 1863, and has been recently quoted in the innumerable discussions that have been going on and are still going on touching the urgent need for British merchants to bestir themselves : ‘ The reason why so few foreigners trouble themselves to learn Chinese is the false conception which has been prevalent concerning the difficulties to be contended against. The acquisition of the living tongue of China can be made more readily and perfectly under a European than by means of the unscientific teaching of a native.’ This pronouncement of half a century ago has had little practical effect in modifying the situation, despite the successful efforts of Sir Thomas (then Mr.) Wade in 1867 to organize a thoroughly efficient means for learning the dialect of Peking. Sir Thomas Wade’s work is deservedly imperishable, and nothing more influential has superseded it.

From a general point of view no language can be postulated more difficult than another, for every language is the easiest expression by the native speaker thereof of his sentiments ; specifically, Chinese is provably as easy to speak as English, for any English child born in China, and allowed to grow up amongst native servants and friends, speaks the local dialect with absolute perfection along with English. The difficulty of a language cannot therefore be inherent, but must lie in the difference between the language already spoken and that which is to be learnt ; it is only the difference between braying and neighing in another degree, the aims being identical. Chinese,

accordingly, is so different from English, that it becomes increasingly difficult in the ratio of the learner's established custom: hence—given equal natural intelligence—a youth of 18 invariably progresses more rapidly than an adult of 40.

No doubt Chinese is, by reason of its seemingly grotesque differences, *apparently* very hard to learn at all; and, by reason of its innumerable and confusing dialects, *really* very hard to learn correctly, unless it is studied in a place where everybody speaks in the same way. For in China the spoken language is not the same in any two places; and in Peking, where officials congregate from all parts, no one but a born native speaks quite correctly. It is scarcely an exaggeration to say that amongst a group of native officials forming a government committee of any mixed kind, no one can be guaranteed clear in his expositions unless he 'yells at' you, or you at him, occasionally; or unless he indulges in *pi-t'an* (=pencil chat), i. e. jotting down, or merely indicating by flourishes of his forefinger, the written character intended to express the particular sound he is repeating for the special benefit of his colleague's provincial ear.

The learner who wishes to follow the illustrious example of Sir Thomas Wade and really break the back of this obstinate language must choose his dialect and stick to it. The reason is that, as will shortly be shown, all dialects are regular. That is to say, no matter how unlike they may be, the changes in pronunciation follow definite fixed rules: hence instinct teaches every native to make mental allowances for speakers of other dialects, and it is obvious that these mental allowances are more easily made when the speaker is 'in order' than when he speaks imperfectly.

Dialects

On the other hand, though the Chinese dialects all clearly belong to one common stock, yet they differ from one another quite as widely as the various Romance languages in Southern Europe—say, French, Italian, and Spanish. Taking a linguis-

tic survey of China, we find most of these dialects fringing the coast-line, and penetrating but a comparatively short way into the interior. Starting from the province of Kwangtung in the south, where the Cantonese, and farther inland the Hakka, dialects are spoken, and proceeding northwards, we pass in succession the following dialects : Swatow, Amoy—these two may almost be regarded as one—Foochow, Wenchow, and Ningpo. Farther north we come into the range of the great dialect popularly known as Mandarin (*Kuan hua*, or official language), which sweeps round behind the narrow strip of coast occupied by the various dialects above-mentioned, and dominates a hinterland constituting nearly four-fifths of China Proper. Mandarin, of which the dialect of Peking (the capital since 1421) is now the standard form, comprises a considerable number of sub-dialects, some of them so closely allied that the speakers of one are wholly intelligible to the speakers of another, while others (e.g. the vernaculars of Yangchow, Hankow or Mid-China, and Szechwan) may almost be considered as separate dialects. Among all these Cantonese is supposed to approximate most nearly to the primitive language of antiquity, whereas Pekingese perhaps has receded farthest from it. But although, philologically and historically speaking, Cantonese and certain other dialects may be of greater interest, for all practical purposes Mandarin, in the widest sense of the term, is by far the most important. Not only can it claim to be the native speech of the majority of Chinamen, but it is the recognized vehicle of oral communication between all Chinese officials, even in cases where they come from the same part of the country and speak the same *patois*.

Chinese a monosyllabic language

Another point. All the Chinese dialects, and all the 'tonic' languages akin to Chinese (Annamese, Miao, Yao, Lolo, Shan, &c.) are monosyllabic, i. e. no matter what single word, whether noun, verb, adjective, conjunction, or what not,

is enunciated in one syllable, the only apparent qualification of this statement being that the vowel of many such syllables is often a diphthong; thus *chiang* and *chang*, *chiu* and *chu*, though monosyllables, contain vowels of different degrees of purity or simplicity; like the word 'gardener', by a few old-fashioned people still pronounced 'gyardner', or like the faint difference between the vowels in *chew* and *choose* made by some clear speakers.

But, after all, this monosyllabic feature of the Chinese languages must not be overweighted. All languages, even the most sesquipedalian, are monosyllabic, in the sense that all polysyllables must consist of single syllables; and all inflections, agglutinative particles, and so on, are either pure unmodified monosyllables with a definite meaning, or impure monosyllables the original meaning of which it is difficult to trace back. *Independence* and *Unabhängigkeit* are both exactly the same word: if, like the Chinese, we had always kept our European syllables separate and uncorrupted, we should have been equally comprehensible if we had said, 'Not from hang like way', or, as we still say, 'not hang on to others.' The important difference is that the Chinese in all their parts of speech, whether primary or auxiliary in meaning, have only had their own single language to deal with, whereas in English we have borrowed from so many sources that most of us are ignorant of what our own monosyllables mean. German occupies a midway position between English and Chinese: it may be said aphoristically, 'Every Chinaman knows analytically exactly what he is saying; every German knows pretty well what he is saying; few Englishmen have any exact analytical idea of what they say.' What with Greek, Latin, French, and other borrowings, English has frequently lost all trace of its component parts. Every one talks of 'insufficient circumstances', and knows generally what this means, but how many people can split these words up and define *why* each syllable has or contributes to the total effect? This instinctive feeling every Chinese has, no matter what dialect he speaks.

The written language

Coming now to the written language of China, it may be said to be, in a very true sense, the simplest script belonging to any civilized nation at the present day. The reason is that it is more directly derived from pictures than any other system of writing now in use. A certain number of characters are, indeed, or were in their original form, actual pictures of natural objects. Such are 日 sun, 月 moon, 人 man, 女 woman, 子 child, 手 hand, 口 mouth, 目 eye, 木 tree, 馬 horse, 鳥 bird, 魚 fish, &c. It is obvious, however, that abstract ideas cannot well be represented by pictures, and consequently new methods had to be devised in order to cope with the difficulty. A simple device was the joining together of two picture-characters in order to suggest a new idea by their association. Thus, 'sun' by the side of 'moon' (明) stands for the idea of brightness. A woman with a child (好) means 'love' or 'good'. A hand shading the eyes (看) is 'to look at'. A woman under a roof (安) suggests 'peace'. These and similar characters—they are comparatively few in number—are the only ones really entitled to be called *ideographs*, a word which is often inaccurately applied to Chinese characters in general. But this device was soon felt to be too cumbrous: something more practical was required, something which, while less burdensome to the memory, would keep the written language more in touch with the spoken tongue. A fairly satisfactory solution of the difficulty was found in the adoption of a phonetic principle; that is to say, compound characters were formed, of which a certain portion indicated the *sound*, while the other portion gave a clue to the *sense*.

Even so, the wide gap between spoken and written Chinese remains one of the most remarkable features of the language. Whereas the original picture script of the West gradually became modified into the letters of an alphabet, in China the

phonetic change was much less thorough, and there are no letters into which syllables may be broken up. Thus, our word *king* is written down by means of four letters, each of which has a fixed value in the syllable as a whole. But the character 王, which serves to represent the sound *wang* in its meaning of 'king', is an indivisible unit, and there is no inherent reason why it should not be pronounced *king* or in any other way. Chinese characters may be compared in this respect with our numerals 1, 2, 3, &c., which are used in the same sense by all European nations though pronounced in different ways. The above shows how it is that Chinese writing can not only be the same for a number of very dissimilar dialects, but even do duty for Japanese, a totally different type of language.

Since characters cannot be 'spelt', it is evident that the effort of memory involved in reading Chinese aloud must be greater than in the case of an alphabetical language. The object of the phonetic element is to relieve this strain on the memory to some extent. Thus, analysing the compound character 皇 'brilliant', we have on the left the modified form of the pictorial symbol for 'sun', which gives a clue to the meaning. On the right appears the character which, as we have seen, means 'king'; but here its sole function is to indicate the sound of the whole word, which is *wang*. This is a simple example, but in many cases both sound and sense are indicated much more vaguely. The character 狂, for instance, is pronounced *k'uang*, and means 'mad'. On the right we again find 王 as phonetic, but this time *wang* only rhymes with *k'uang*; and on the left is a corruption of the picture of a dog, which is supposed to convey the notion of wildness.

An official statement by the Board of Education asserted quite recently that less than one per cent. of the whole Chinese race (seven per mille) were acquainted with literature. As a matter of fact, a much larger proportion of male Chinese have for many centuries had a slight acquaintance with the

written character sufficient to carry them through their daily business, women in most parts being entirely ignorant; but this slender knowledge was before the introduction of newspapers and advertising a generation ago. Now both sexes are rapidly advancing, and the dullest minds are stimulated by curiosity as to what is going on in the world. But all Chinese, illiterate or learned, have as much grammar as we have; that is to say, they arrange the order of their words by hereditary instinct, and daily practice in such a way that they extract the same effective results as though they had all our moods, tenses, declensions, and cases. The main difference between vulgar speech and literary elegance is that the latter aims at eschewing tautology, repetitions, expletives, and coarseness; the style tends to the telegraphic in its economy. The most learned Chinese *literatus* cannot in the least explain how he arrives at 'style', yet the official, historical, narrative, and other styles are all recognized and mentally fixed, subject of course to the qualification that real masters of style attract special attention, as with ourselves. Official dispatch writers are a class apart and form a sort of semi-secret guild.

The fact that Chinese written characters are final and unchangeable cannot possibly have anything to do with the fact that the spoken language is (as above qualified) monosyllabic and uninflected, for men spoke and formed their language for the current purposes of life long before they ever thought of even elementary writing. Moreover, even within historical memory, Chinese writing was so laborious and clumsy an art, writing materials were so expensive and unwieldy, that only an infinitesimal number of scholars in a very few capital cities could have had the independent means to study. In the same way it must be remembered that men spoke long before the idea of 'grammar' was conceived in other lands. The peculiarity of Chinese is that the people, literate or illiterate, have continued to speak as they have always spoken, without the faintest idea of 'good grammar' or 'bad grammar' having entered a single mind, and this over a history of 4,000 years. A school-

master may chide a boy for rude expressions, but he never dreams of correcting his 'grammar'; nor are there any books on grammar. Language grew through untold generations of gradual development before grammar was invented to harness it to the restraint of fancy rules. Even in Europe dialects still run wild, and correct speech is only ancillary to local brogues, whereas in China no one has ever dreamt of regulating mere speech, however minutely rules for poetry and essay-writing may have developed. Every Chinese official speaks or tries to speak mandarin of some kind; not necessarily Pekingese (the fashionable language for the last thousand years), but some form of that vast series of correlated dialects current over the whole of China, Manchuria, and (if Chinese be spoken at all) Mongolia, Korea, and Tibet, which pass by that unsatisfactory name. But no Cantonese or coast-Chinese of any kind holding an official position under the Manchu dynasty would ever speak his native non-mandarin brogue officially in public. Interpreters were always used in courts of law, and it was no uncommon sight to witness, say, a Cantonese judge, who himself spoke imperfect mandarin, having the evidence of a Cantonese prisoner (which he understood perfectly) interpreted to him in another form of mandarin equally imperfect.

Characters

It may strike Europeans as singular that the total number of syllables for 40,000 written characters ranges between 350 to 800. But this statement is subject to qualifications which reduce it to comparative impotence. In the first place 12,000 characters easily embrace the whole gamut of reasonable literature, and probably of the three or four million men in China officially dubbed 'literate', not one million can be depended on to pronounce clearly upon more than 8,000 or 9,000. Three-fourths of the characters are waste; duplicates or 'cranks' of this or that kind. A good average knowledge, sufficient for supervising correspondence, reading proclamations, glancing over the newspapers and official gazettes,

dealing with commercial documents, &c., would be 4,000 or 5,000. Hence it follows that no character beyond this last number can possibly have a local pronunciation that can be depended upon; that is to say, if a person, Chinese or other, does not know it from personal experience, he must accept the native dictionary pronunciation, and this itself is imperfect, because the native dictionaries, in arranging their initials and finals, have only been able (1) to go back to ancient *dicta*, or (2) to accept the personal pronouncements of individuals (who may be provincials) in court circles. To put it in another way, the ordinary business Chinese of standing only makes use during life of 4,000 or 5,000 words in the whole of his conversation and business, and can only fit that conversation with the same number of signs. Hence the European student need not burden his memory with more (unless he wish to be a specialist), and if he stumbles across either strange words or strange characters he must look them up; after which he is as good an authority as the average Chinese, who must do the same thing.

Syllabary and tones

As to the number of syllables in a monosyllabic language not exceeding 350—indeed the Hankow dialect has only 320—it is doubtful if even in polysyllabic English our separate monosyllables would reach 1,000. The whole Japanese language from first to last, including Chinese importations, is expressed by 50 separate monosyllables; but then the language is highly polysyllabic, and there are many clippings, prolongations, and ‘thickenings’ to help it out. In China the same helping out effect is partly gained by tones, which practically double, treble, or even quadruple the distinctions: yet, with all that, one of the real difficulties of Chinese—especially the ‘mandarin’ dialects—to foreign students, even those with a good ear for tones, is the want of variety in word-sounds, which difficulty is of course accentuated in the case of persons—and they are many—who cannot acquire the tones at all. The reason why some dialects have only

400 whilst others have 800 sounds is that either initials or finals, or both, have been merged in the cases of the mandarin group, whilst they have been preserved in the ignored dialects of the coast. It is easily provable, from close examination of the present form of Korean, Japanese, and Annamese words taken over from Chinese (from A. D. 1 till, say, A. D. 1300), that the Cantonese dialect, which is far the highest in development, corresponds most closely with the theoretical or dictionary form of ancient times, still rigidly adhered to for poetical purposes, though no Chinaman can explain why. This is the more remarkable in that the Cantonese are not of pure 'Old China' stock, and the explanation probably is that as the Tartars gradually possessed themselves of North China (as explained in the chapter on history), the pure Chinese colonized the south in huge numbers by way of the lakes, and took their speech with them.

On the other hand, the now existing mandarin dialects of Old China, West China, and the foreign provinces above enumerated, evidently represent corrupt forms as debased by successive inroads by Tartar rulers, who (like the Koreans and Japanese with adopted Chinese words) would naturally make a clean sweep of tones, surds, sonants, aspirates, and other refinements strange to their own guttural and agglutinative speech. To illustrate the extent of mandarin corruption: what ought to be *ki*, *tsi*, *kik*, *kip*, *kit*, *tsik*, *tsip*, *tsit*, are all debased into one uniform 'mandarin' form *chi*; thus a Cantonese has eight chances at guessing right on one mandarin chance in this particular instance.

Advice to learners of the spoken language

It will be obvious from what has been said that the dialect of most use is mandarin. There is some difference of opinion as to the best form of mandarin to study, but if the student chooses any other than Pekingese, which is still the accredited official language, he can only do so for special reasons. There

is a better apparatus of handbooks and other aids for the foreigner learning Pekingese than in the case of any other dialect. Excluding Cantonese, which is important to British officials on account of the local needs of Hongkong, it may be said in a general way that no one except a missionary ever studies a purely local dialect. To those who wish to master Pekingese there is no better lesson-book than Sir Thomas Wade's *Tzū Erh Chi*, in the preface to which they will find complete instructions for their guidance. Where the aim is less ambitious, and only an acquaintance with everyday speech is desired, the learner will probably find that Sir Walter Hillier's *The Chinese Language and how to learn it* will answer all his requirements.

CHAPTER VIII

CHRONOLOGY AND THE CALENDAR

New Calendar same as European—Old Chinese Calendar—Cyclical systems
—Solar terms—Time zone system.

THE Chinese calendar now conforms to the European system. This important change was effected by a resolution passed by the Tzū-chêng Yüan on Nov. 20, 1911; and on January 1, 1912, Dr. Sun Yat-sen took the oath as President of the Nanking Provisional Government in 'the first day of the first year of the Republic of China'. The new calendar is used for dating all official documents, though the old style has not yet been entirely abandoned in the provinces.

Under these circumstances it will be well to understand both the old and new systems, and the differences between them.

The civil year in Europe is reckoned as the period of revolution of the earth round the sun, and it is divided into twelve months regardless of the moon. In order to make the year correspond exactly with the course of the sun, an adjustment by means of an intercalary day has to be made at stated intervals, i.e. every four years. The calendar constructed on these principles has now been adopted by the Chinese, though without borrowing the European names for the months. The Chinese months are simply numbered, i.e. first month, second month, third month, &c. Additional names for months and periods of the year which were current under the old system will be mentioned later.

The old calendar in China was based on the revolutions of the moon round the earth, each month corresponding to one revolution. The period of a revolution being 29 days and a fraction, the year of twelve months totalled 354 or 355 days;

and to balance this with the length of the solar years, it was necessary to intercalate a month in certain years. The result was that in 19 years there were 12 years of twelve months and 7 intercalary years of thirteen months.

The precise apportionment of the days in the calendar was worked out annually by the Board of Mathematics, submitted to the Emperor for his approval, and issued with great ceremony on the first day of the tenth month. It was then circulated round the provinces, where printed copies were issued to the public by order of the viceroy or governor.

The old system was roughly followed from the Han dynasty which began in 206 B.C. ; but about A.D. 1670 it was further regulated by John Adam Schall, a Jesuit priest, who based the calendar on the movements of the moon as observed in the meridian of Peking.

The hours of the day are reckoned by the Chinese in twelve periods of two hours each, beginning at 11 p.m. The first day of each month was that in which the new moon appeared at Peking ; and since the phases of the moon do not correspond with any multiple of 24 hours (a complete lunation occupying 29 days and a fraction), it followed that certain lunar months, when the fraction fell entirely on one day, would consist of 29 days only, whilst others, when the fraction was divided between two days, would consist of 30. For example, if the new moon appeared at 10.45 p.m. on a certain day, that day was the first of the month in spite of the fact that it had only 15 minutes of the new moon : there were 29 complete days to follow, and a 30th (which counted in the next month) containing the balance of the period of lunation. The month would therefore consist of 30 days. Months were called ' short ' or ' long ' according as they had 29 or 30 days.

Each month was distinguished as belonging to one of the twelve signs of the Zodiac. The first month was that during which the sun entered the sign corresponding to Pisces, viz. about the 19th of February. Hence the New Year fell in China somewhere between the 20th of January and the 19th of February.

As already stated the 'common' year of 12 lunar months amounted to 354 or 355 days. When the calendar had fallen so far behind the sun that the 13th new moon no longer fell while the sun was in the sign of Pisces, a 13th month was intercalated by the duplication of one of the ordinary months, and the year contained 383 or 384 days. This was called a 'full' year.

Since the period of lunation is a little shorter than the time taken by the sun to cross a sign of the Zodiac, in 'full years' there occurred one sign in which the sun was found during an entire lunar month, and this was the month in which the intercalation was made.

One system of reckoning years was from the beginning of the reign of an emperor, e. g. 1907 was the 33rd year of the Emperor Kuang Hsü. Besides this there is another system of reckoning days and years in cycles of sixty. In this system a name is given to each day and year of the cycle and no account is taken of intercalations. It is an exact system of computation and quite independent of the calendar. The sixty cyclical names are composed of combinations of the 'ten celestial stems' with the 'twelve horary characters' or 'branches'. It should be added that the twelve branches are also used to designate the twelve signs of the Zodiac, the twelve divisions of the day, and the points of the compass. E. g. the first sign *Tzû* (the Rat) represents Aries in the Zodiac, the period 11 p.m. to 1 a.m., and the North: the fourth sign *Mao* (the Hare) represents Cancer, 5-7 a.m., and E.: the twelfth sign *Hai* (the Boar) represents Pisces, 9-11 p.m., and NNW. $\frac{3}{4}$ W. As signs of the Zodiac these branches are also used to designate the months, the sign through which the sun passes during the month giving the latter its name.

Besides these two methods of naming the months, the numerical and Zodiacal, there were several others having reference to physical changes, seasonable flowers, &c. Thus the second month was called *hsing yüeh* (apricot month), *hua chao* (dawn of flowers), &c.; the sixth month is *ho yüeh* (lotus month), &c.; the ninth month is *chü yüeh* (chrysanthemum month), &c.

The Chinese also recognize twenty-four solar terms which divide the year into seasons beginning approximately on February the 5th. Thus, February 5-18 is *li ch'un* (spring begins); February 19 to March 4 is *yü shui* (the rains); July 23 to August 6 is *ta shu* (great heat); November 22 to December 6 *hsiao hsüeh* (early snow); January 21 to February 4 *ta han* (great cold).

With regard to the reckoning of time in China the time-zone system was adopted at Shanghai on January 1, 1903, and subsequently at other places. It has become official for all stations of the Imperial Maritime Customs lying within the coast zone, as well as for the telegraph and railway administration. In the 7th hour zone it is optional.

Counting the zones from the meridian of Greenwich, Central and Western China, which have a standard meridian of 105° E. from Greenwich, have a standard time 7 hours ahead of Greenwich time. The eastern provinces have a standard meridian of 120° and a standard time 8 hours ahead of Greenwich.

CHAPTER IX

DISEASE AND HYGIENE

MEDICINE has not been recognized in China as one of the honourable professions. The knowledge of the so-called doctors is mainly empirical, being handed down from father to son, and it may be likened to the knowledge of the herbalists and doctors of mediaeval times in Europe. Outside the Treaty Ports hygiene and sanitation, as we understand them, are practically unknown, and the overcrowding in the big cities is everywhere favourable to the spread of epidemic diseases. Even in Hongkong in 1914 two of the health districts, into which the city of Victoria is divided, contained 966 and 946 persons respectively per acre.

Official health statistics for China are not available, but some idea of the distribution of disease can be obtained from reports of the consular and customs medical officers in the Treaty Ports and from the medical missionaries scattered over the country. Dr. W. H. Jefferys and Dr. J. L. Maxwell in their *Diseases of China* divide the country into seven large districts. For present purposes three main divisions will suffice to show the distribution as associated with climatic conditions:

(1) North China. From lat. 35° northward the climate is pleasantly warm, though often hot in summer and cold and invigorating in winter. Plague is present occasionally, cholera from time to time, dysentery is endemic, and typhus and relapsing fevers are frequent. Of late an increasing number of malarial fever cases have been noted. Climatically, it is a healthy region.

(2) Central China. From lat. 28° to 35° includes the Yangtse valley. It is cold and damp in winter, warm and damp the rest of the year. The summers are very long, hot,

and enervating. Plague rarely reaches this section, except by importation. Probably the precautions of the health authorities at Shanghai have prevented plague from becoming more widespread at that port. Cholera sweeps over this region, when it is about; there is much dysentery here; and the types of malaria are abundantly represented. Beriberi is fairly prevalent, and there are many cases of fluke-worm diseases. Rheumatism is very common.

(3) South China. From lat. 28° southward the country is sub-tropical, always warm, usually hot and damp. There is little frost, and no proper winter season here. The most characteristic feature in the disease distribution of this division is the prevalence and stability of plague. Malaria is very common, and in addition there frequently occur epidemics of cholera, dysentery, measles, small-pox, dengue, and influenza. In this district is included Hongkong, which is a distributing centre for various affections, owing to its importation of troops from India and other countries where there are endemic foci of tropical diseases.

Apart from climatic distribution there are diseases which pervade the length and breadth of the country. Of these the worst is tuberculosis, which is fostered by the insanitary habits of the people, who in the colder regions sleep on *k'ang* (stove-beds) and expectorate freely everywhere. Bone and gland tubercular complaints are on the whole more common than respiratory affections.

Bowel affections.—Dysentery and diarrhoea are very common. Typhoid fever occurs among Chinese, but generally in a less severe form than among Europeans. About 90 per cent. of the Chinese harbour intestinal parasites. A severe form of gastro-intestinal catarrh occurs with varying frequency in the summer months, especially in the Yangtse valley. It has the same symptoms and treatment as cholera, but differs from the latter in the absence of Koch's comma bacillus. It has been called clinical cholera. The mortality is about 12 per cent., and the disease, which is non-infectious, usually comes from eating unripe or over-ripe fruit, from drinking

unboiled water, or eating cold food which has been infected by organisms of the coli group.

Small-pox has long been one of the scourges of China, and in the absence of isolation the practice of inoculation which has prevailed there for centuries has probably helped to spread rather than to combat the disease. The value of vaccination is not fully realized by the Chinese, but it is a precaution which no European resident can afford to neglect.

Other diseases.—Malaria, influenza, elephantiasis, leprosy, undulant (Malta) fever, furunculosis, and a number of undifferentiated fevers, besides venereal diseases, occur with varying frequency, and may be said to be common all over China. Intermittent fevers are very common wherever the cultivation of rice is carried on near villages and towns. Plague is endemic and epidemic south of lat. 28° , but it is only met with in its epidemic form north of that line and arising from imported cases of the disease. A terrible outbreak of pneumonic plague occurred in Manchuria in 1910–11. A parasitic disease called schistosomiasis (several varieties), first observed in China in 1904, occurs with great frequency in the Yangtse Valley. It is due to a trematode worm, and its main symptoms are dysentery and progressive abdominal enlargement, anaemia, and emaciation. It has been found in foreigners, but occurs mainly in farmers, fishermen, &c.—those who have to wade in water. In one recent year it was reported from Wuhu that in some districts of the province of Anhwei 50 per cent. of the farmers were affected by it.

HEALTH OF FOREIGNERS

China has no special climatic dangers for foreigners. With the exception of sprue (see below) and malaria and a few cases of sunstroke which occur annually, there are few diseases which cannot be avoided by following the simple rules of health regularly published by the Shanghai medical officer of health. These are :

(1) Eat and drink nothing which has not been recently cooked, boiled, or otherwise sterilized.

(2) Do not consume fruit, vegetables, salads, melons, &c., which have not been cooked or sterilized ; food on which flies have settled ; milk or cream which has not been boiled or sterilized ; water which has not been boiled or filtered through a Berkefeld filter ; aerated waters and other drinks except of best quality ; alcoholic drinks during the hot weather ; ice-cream, unless made of boiled materials ; uncooked oyster ; fish, from June to October.

The above are individual measures for the avoidance of all bowel disorders. Prompt isolation and disinfection, sanitary premises, vaccination, and the avoidance of any collections of water wherein mosquitoes could breed are other measures which will go a long way to prevent most of the other diseases that menace foreigners here.

Sprue is a disease which occurs oftener in Shanghai than anywhere else. It still remains an enigma to the medical profession as regards its cause. The two chief symptoms are ulceration of the mouth and a form of diarrhoea. If treated early a cure usually results, but neglected cases nearly always prove fatal. It very rarely occurs among Chinese, and its incidence in the foreign population is much greater among females than males. Bodily and mental depression and the presence of other chronic diseases are predisposing factors.

CHAPTER X

GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

Intercourse between British officers and Chinese officials—Chinese system of administration—Administration under the Manchu dynasty—China really a democracy—Central Government—Government of the eighteen provinces—Manchuria and Turkestan—Provincial administration—Naval and military administration—Conclusion : Chinese administrative system still in state of flux.

THE changes of the past five years have complicated a subject which even in its original and time-honoured shape was already difficult enough for a casual visitor to understand. Perhaps the simplest way to unravel the difficulty would be to specify and describe the Chinese officers, civil, military, and naval, with whom British officers are likely to be brought into immediate contact, and then, having dealt with this practical question, to set forth clearly how these Chinese officers have been gradually evolved, and what relation they bear to each other.

INTERCOURSE BETWEEN BRITISH OFFICERS AND CHINESE OFFICIALS

There are only a few places where are to be found civil officers of sufficiently high rank to exchange visits on equal terms with a British naval officer of flag rank. These are Canton, Nanking, Tientsin, and Peking. Hankow and Foochow are quite qualified also, but owing to the less convenient access to these two places the exchange of visits has in the past been more occasional and exceptional. Previous to the overthrow of the imperial régime and the establishment of a republic in the winter of 1911-12, it was always most advisable to place the arrangements for a visit in the hands of the Consul-General or Consul, for there were always little

galling questions of etiquette to consider, which often assumed an exaggerated value in the eyes of the Chinese, and afforded ill-disposed 'mandarins' opportunities to establish inconvenient precedents, and thus to enhance, in the people's eyes, their own dignity and the prestige of the empire at the cost of the foreign officers' position and the status of Great Britain. Without labouring this point or entering into petty detail it may be said that, however republican or constitutional-monarchical changes may have recently changed the manners, the dress, the salutes, and so on, the inborn disposition to magnify China still renders it prudent for a British officer of high rank to place his case, be it a matter of courtesy or of business, in the hands of the consulate. At the present time the only two provincial civilian officials of equivalent rank are called the *chiang-chün* (a military title, the holder of which is none the less a sort of co-governor) and the *hsiün-an* (a civilian title, the holder of which often exercises military power). These two officials occasionally act, temporarily or more or less permanently, for each other during absence on leave, and in case of death, dismissal, or urgent business away from the seat of provincial government.

Captains, commanders, lieutenants in command, &c., will find at most of the treaty-ports an official of consular or consul-general rank (as arranged by the early treaties). His duties are usually combined with the superintendence of the Maritime Customs, and his present title is *taoyin*; but as *tao* or 'circuit' is still the basis of his designation, it is extremely probable that the pre-revolution title of *taotai* will remain in popular use. Apart from visits of courtesy, naval officers at Shanghai may have occasion to visit this official in connexion with questions touching the Woosung Bar, or junks impeding the channel, or landing men for exercise and drill, securing supplies of meat in times of drought, and so on. Under ultra-modern conditions many Chinese officials wear European clothes, and are occasionally European or American university men, so that for this or other reason they might resent the interposition of the consulate; but none the less

a British officer inexperienced in the tortuous ways of Chinese official thinking will always be safer if he works through his own countrymen on the spot. At Canton and Tientsin the *taotais* are not visited so much : on the other hand, at Hankow and Foochow (at the last-named place head of the 'foreign board') exchanges of visits are probably as frequent now as they used to be.

The *hsien* or *hien* is the executive magistrate or governor of every walled city, with its thousand square miles or so of country area, and, as will be explained later on, is one of the most ancient officials, the true back-bone of administration in all its branches. His *yamên* or public residence, including offices, prison, &c., is invariably inside the city walls, and, as few treaty-ports are actually within easy sight of the city walls, it is only in exceptional cases that the naval officer will have direct dealings with the *chih-shih* or 'affairs knower' of the *hsien* : previous to the 1911 revolution his title for many centuries had been *chih-hsien* or '*hsien*-knower'. The *taoyin* above described has never any city of his own : he is the link between the two high officials first described and the *hsien*, within the walls of which nearly all the *yamêns*, civil or military, are congregated. Sometimes, as at Tientsin, the highest official *yamên* may be outside the walls ; but there is always a special reason for this exception. The original *yamên* of the viceroy of Chihli province was at the provincial capital, Paotingfu, and he only paid occasional visits to his temporary quarters at Tientsin : after the treaties of 1860 were made this temporary residence gradually became permanent ; but the other high officials still exercise their functions at Paotingfu, whilst the *chiang-chün* (former viceroy, or more properly governor-general) is now a fixture at Tientsin.

In later Manchu times there was a steady flow of distinguished foreign visitors—princes, statesmen, admirals, generals—passing through Tientsin in order to have audience with the Emperor, with or without the Dowager at Peking. These visits only became reasonably possible, and therefore

frequent, after the Japanese war of 1894-5, when the railway from Tientsin to the coal-mines had been extended to the sea and to Peking. Previous to that a pilgrimage of four days in boats, springless carts, mule-litters, or the donkey-saddle did not appeal strongly to the high foreign official. The viceroys at Tientsin, ever since 1870, have usually been closely associated with the foreign affairs of the Peking Government, and therefore visits to them were in business matters almost the equivalent of visits to the Foreign Board. In any case the Consul-General at Tientsin is the officer into whose hands arrangements will still fall, at all events until the foreign visitor finds himself safely in the official charge of his own Legation.

CHINESE SYSTEM OF ADMINISTRATION

Proceeding now to the consideration of the Chinese administration in general, we must refer to Chapter V, which will in many places supplement explanations given here. From ancient times the Supreme Ruler, whatever his exact title at the time, has always been revered as a semi-sacred personage. At first he reigned over a great number of practically independent home-ruling princelets: then these sub-rulers, much like those of the petty states of ancient Greece, consolidated themselves into a much smaller number of 'powers'; until we find the Emperor very much in the position of the Popes of Rome when they still held on to the last remnants of their territorial sovereignty and endeavoured to calm their unruly kings.

These great Chinese powers, under different names from those in colloquial use now, were practically the same as the provinces of to-day, the main difference being that instead of, say a dozen absolutely independent principalities or kingdoms being morally or nominally subject to a nebulous superior, for the past two thousand years unmistakably subordinate provinces, ruled by non-hereditary governors, have been controlled in the interests of the reigning house and the official

class supporting that house without much regard for the welfare of the people, beyond tacitly allowing to the people a considerable measure of liberty subject to the one condition that there must be no political agitation or disturbance of public order. This simple arrangement has continued through successive dynasties, with minor changes and qualifications, down to our own times.

ADMINISTRATION UNDER THE MANCHU DYNASTY

It will therefore suffice if we take the late Manchu dynasty—which on the whole was the most practical and moderate the Chinese ever had—as a sample for all. In this case the ruling house sat in proud detachment securely at Peking, reserving to itself simply the right to bestow and to cancel lucrative appointments. It maintained in addition Manchu garrisons at important centres in the provinces, just as we maintain cantonments in India. Apart from the duty of forwarding punctually to the capital a fixed amount of money or grain every year chiefly derived from the land-tax and salt gabelle, the provincial governors (as often Chinese as Manchu) were practically left to administer as they pleased, subject only to time-honoured custom; the minor officials in turn (almost exclusively Chinese) had the same liberty in administration, subject again to the restraints of custom. Finally, the people themselves were left to manage their own municipal, rural, educational, social, religious, commercial, artistic, and, it might almost be said, legal (especially as to family) matters themselves, on the tacit understanding that the Emperor's own will, or his will as enunciated by his duly commissioned officers, must never be thwarted.

CHINA A DEMOCRACY

Thus China, though apparently from our point of view an absolute despotism, has been in fact a huge democracy. Custom, which has always followed the lines of the ancient teachings, has restrained the Emperor and the Emperor's

officers quite as much as it has restrained the Emperor's lieges. None but strong and just monarchs could resist the customary reproving right of their censors and upright advisers with any show of success, and with just and strong Emperors such resistance was as likely to be popularly approved as not. All officials were by unwritten custom allowed (if they wished it) to make their fortunes out of their posts; but if in so doing they stepped beyond customary bounds they were liable, if exalted, to be successfully impeached by their colleagues or even their subordinates; if subordinates, to be suspended, reported, or even removed by their provincial superiors. 'Strikes,' or wholesale shop-shutting, have always been a favourite and usually successful popular method of forcing officials, whether high or low, to resign or to capitulate.

As there has never been any caste or aristocracy among the Chinese themselves, apart from the aristocracy of holding the Emperor's commission, and as, with the exception of certain customary pariah classes, the humblest Chinese if educated in accordance with custom could enter the examination lists and aspire to any official post either in the provinces or at Peking, it follows that most unofficial Chinese had either a relative or a friend in the official body, and therefore had a sort of personal interest in keeping intact the ruling classes' preserves. Thus the whole Empire lived on the give-and-take principle in a state of easy-going content perhaps unequalled in any European country, until the aggressive foreigner appeared upon the scene and step by step disturbed this self-satisfied harmony.

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

The Government at Peking had a comparatively easy time. There were six 'boards' or departments roughly corresponding with our secretary of state distinctions, with (in order of precedence) the following duties. The Civil Office made or approved all appointments, dismissals, promotions, and transfers. The Finance Department saw to the prompt remittance

of revenue, and to grants in aid, disbursements, coinage of copper 'cash', and appropriations to the fisc or private treasury. The Ceremonial Office dealt with customary worship or sacrifice, whether to gods or to the ancient sages, and in this last connexion it had chief say in the matter of education, so far at least as public official examination tests were concerned. The name War Office speaks for itself, and includes 'naval' appointments, which, until the 'sixties, never meant more than lacustrine or riverine guard-boats, and, along the coasts, a few sailing junks charged with the duty of checking pirates or salt and opium smugglers. The Punishment Board was a Court of Appeal or Rehearing as well as the chief prison for state offenders, besides receiving legal (criminal) reports from the provinces, checking and readjusting sentences, reviewing and supplementing the statute law, eked out by 'judge-made' law, imperial rescripts, and modern requirements. There never was any civil law beyond custom. The Office of Works dealt with constructions, dikes, embankments, Imperial Tombs, roads, communications, &c., so far at least as the provincial authorities or the people themselves did not quietly and at their local expense see to their own interests more economically and effectively.

During the first 150 years of the dynasty all these departments worked well, ancillary to the personal efforts of capable Emperors. The central revenue (say £15,000,000 a year at the then prevailing gold rates) was more than ample, so much so that one Emperor ordained that 'no matter how the population may increase, the land shall never pay a higher tax per acre than it now pays'. Most expensive wars were conducted, north, south, and west (never east); yet there were still 'cakes and ale' for everybody. The revenue literally could not be got rid of, though at that time there was no Maritime Customs to speak of (beyond lucrative billets for Court favourites at Canton and a few other places); no *likin* or petty interference with local traffic; no loan of any kind to pay off, for none was required; none of the minor taxes recently introduced, such as those on tobacco and wine,

stamps, &c.; the provincial governments were allowed a free hand with pawnshop and other licences, ships' trading papers, land-transfer fees, and other perquisites that went to swell the mandarins' fortunes.

During the nineteenth century, however, an era of vicious, incompetent, or child monarchs supervened. The opium traffic (the real responsibility for which is not always fairly apportioned) sapped the vitals of the people; foreign trade, foreign religions, foreign diplomacy, and foreign wars combined to revolutionize the old idyllic if ignorant life; the above-mentioned six boards became corrupt; provincial authorities high and low joined in inordinate 'squeezing'; justice was bought and sold; the land was devastated by rebellion; the Manchus lost their manly martial qualities both at Peking and in the dozen or so of provincial cantonments; the natives, who for 2,000 years had never seen or heard of political equality with imperial China, developed inhospitable anti-foreign qualities; in short China rapidly went from bad to worse, until at last the old order of things was discarded, and she is now attempting her first uncertain steps in the paths of modernity.

Of course there is much more to be said about the Central Government in detail, the Imperial Family, the Court usages, the Manchu, Mongol, and Chinese Banner Organization, the Tombs, the Privileged Princes, the Seraglio and Privy Purse, the ornamental and sinecure appointments or offices, the Censors, Aediles, City Police, Temples of Heaven and Earth, Confucius, Tibetan Lamaism, and many other matters; but none of these have a natural place in a short sketch.

GOVERNMENT OF THE EIGHTEEN PROVINCES

Having thus shortly disposed of Peking we proceed to the Eighteen Provinces, as China Proper was called before the Three Manchurian Provinces and the New Dominion (Chinese Turkestan) were added a generation ago. These are:

1. Chihli, 'Direct Jurisdiction'.

2. Shantung, 'East of the (T'ai-hang) Mountains'.
3. Shansi, 'West of the (T'ai-hang) Mountains'.
4. Shensi, 'West of the Shen (Passes)'.
5. Kansu, '(Province containing) Kan-(chowfu and) Su-(chow)'.
6. Chekiang, 'The River Chê'.
7. Honan, 'South of the (Yellow) River'.
8. Anhwei (Anhui or Nganhwei), '(Province containing) An-(king and) Hwei-(chow)'.
9. Kiangsu, '(The Yangtse) Kiang (in relation to) Soo-(chow)'.
10. Kiangsi, 'West of the (Yangtse) Kiang'.
11. Hupeh, 'North of the Lake'.
12. Hunan, 'South of the Lake'.
13. Szechwan (Ssü-ch'uan or Szechuen), 'Four Streams' (cf. Pānjāb).
14. Yunnan, 'South of the Cloudy (region of No. 13)'.
15. Kweichow, 'Noble Region'.
16. Kwangsi, 'West (part of the old) Kwang-(nan province)'.
17. Kwangtung, 'East (part of the old) Kwang-(nan province)'.
18. Fukien, Province containing Fu-(chowfu and) Kien-(ningfu)'.

In the Pekingese dialect Nos. 3 and 4 are only differentiated by 'tone'. No. 15 in another tone would be 'Sprite Region', as it seems to have been originally called in practice before (A. D. 1370) a new dynasty formally erected it into a province. The simple and appropriate meanings of all the other provinces are obvious.

More will be said presently about changes in topography and administration between 1911 and 1916, but it is well to know first the basis of them. The fundamental principle upon which the above eighteen provinces of genuine China proper were ruled previous to 1911 was that each one should have a responsible governor assisted and advised by a provincial treasurer and a provincial judge, all these three

appointments being direct from the throne. All other provincial civilians being complete subordinates (not advisers) of the governor, the situation as stated is thus clear. But the interests of some provinces were so divided that in those cases a governor-general shared with the governor certain duties. And though the governor-general in a broad sense discharged the military and foreign or diplomatic duties whilst the governor managed the civil and fiscal business, yet in practice the two were co-ordinate, and their powers were so checked that in most cases neither could act singly or without the advice of both the treasurer and the judge. So much was this so that if either or both governors made mistakes or exceeded his powers, the treasurer, with or without the judge, could impeach either or both the superior officers in direct memorial to the Emperor.

In two cases provinces had a governor-general alone, and this was apparently because of their huge area, or because the military and diplomatic situation required prompt undivided action, the treasurer and the judge confining their advice to 'regular' government matters. Thus Chihli in its north parts beyond the Great Wall was governed by two Tartar (Manchu or Mongol) military commandants at Kalgan and Jehol respectively, both in civil and military matters, subject, however, to the governor-general's approval in certain matters, and subject also to certain reserves as to whether Chinese or Mongol interests are involved. In the case of Szechwan the whole west is largely Lolo or Tibetan or quasi-Tibetan, so much so that of recent years the question of creating a new western province had been nearly realized; and a separate Commissioner for the Tibetan frontiers occupied a half-civil, half-military post somewhat akin in principle to those of Jehol and Kalgan, except that 'Tibetan' took the place of 'Mongol'.

Three ancient provinces forming part of Old China were administered by governors alone without the interference of any governor-general. These were Honan, the true 'Central Kingdom'; Shantung, the birthplace of Confucius, and before

his time the great centre of learning, of resistance to the Tartars, of military and economic science; and Shansi, the ancient centre of salt and iron industry. Shansi has a separate military governor at Kukukhoto (Kweiuating), similar in principle to those at Kalgan and Jehol, except that he has to secure the goodwill of a governor instead of a governor-general.

In five other cases—Kansu, Hupeh, Yunnan, Fukien, and Kwangtung—there were no governors, governors-general (usually styled viceroys by foreigners) officiating as such.

The Viceroy of the Two Kiang (Liang-kiang) had his seat and also his separate treasurer at Nanking, whilst the three governors of Anhwei, Kiangsi, and Kiangsu had their seats at Anking, Nanchang, and Soochow respectively, each with his treasurer and judge. Anhwei and Kiangsu were once the single province of Kiang-nan, and this is why the term 'Two' Kiang is still in use: in fact, for most unofficial purposes even the term Kiang-nan is still in use. A further complication arises from the fact that ten or a dozen years ago it was decided to create the northern part of Kiangsu into a separate province of Kiang-pei or 'North of the River', but after it had been pointed out that Kiangsu was already the smallest but one in area of all the Eighteen Provinces, it was decided to establish a sort of military-civil governor for this salt-producing, lake-canal region.

The Viceroy of Min-Chê (the ancient countries of Fukien and Chekiang) had his seat at Foochow, with governors at Foochow and Hangchow: previous to the French 'war' of 1884-5 the island of Formosa, governed by a *taotai*, was under the Governor of Fukien as occasional 'visitor'; but in consequence of French action the Governor of Fukien was ordered to reside permanently in Formosa, his continental duties being taken over by the Viceroy. Since the Japanese occupation of Formosa in 1904-5 no fresh Governor of Fukien has been appointed.

The Viceroy of Yun-Kwei had his seat at Yunnan city with a governor at Kweiyang, capital of Kweichow. In the same

way the Viceroy of the Two Kwang at Canton had his seat there with a governor at Kweilin, whilst the Viceroy of the Two Hu (also called Hu-Kwang or 'Lakes' Expanse') had his seat at Wuchang (opposite Hankow) with a governor at Changsha.

With regard to the above-described provincial staffs the whole arrangement has, after innumerable temporary shifts and changes in title, been reconstituted in name since the revolution of 1911. The Viceroyalty of Shen-Kan is peculiar, and will be treated of in the next paragraph. The uniform simple arrangement is now as follows: Each of the Eighteen Provinces has a Chinese *chiang-chün*, and this highest officer is in supreme command of all military matters; each of the same provinces has also a Chinese *hsün-an*, in supreme charge of all civil matters. Thus there are no 'double-barrelled' men, civil or military, and there remains no excuse for the continued use of the somewhat mistaken word 'viceroy'. The treasurer and the judge continue to exist, but under changed names and in a more subordinate position than before, and without the power of 'advising' or 'taking the joint initiative' that existed as a kind of check under the Manchus.

GOVERNMENT OF MANCHURIA AND TURKESTAN

There remain to be considered the three Manchurian provinces and the province of Sinkiang or 'New Dominion'. Previous to the Sino-Japanese War of 1894 the Manchurian provinces had been under the military administration of Manchus, *chiang-chüns* and *tutungs*, and had been non-regulation territories where officers might rule more or less irresponsibly; and the general Peking policy had been to make the whole region an inhospitable buffer state between Russia and Korea. The history of subsequent changes has been long and intricate; suffice it to say that now they each have a Chinese *chiang-chün* and a Chinese *hsün-an*, with staffs as above described. But in this case it has been found necessary to give the *chiang-chün* at Mukden a sort of vice-

regal control of the other two at Kirin and Tsitsihar, the reason being that the practically joint occupation of Japan and Russia with China, in consequence of their railway administration rights, makes it undesirable for either of the two northern functionaries to have a free hand in foreign affairs—as happened in 1900, when the indiscretion of Tsitsihar brought on the massacre of Chinese at Blagovestchensk.

Sinkiang is an extension of the already (previous to the conquests of 1874) extended Kansu, and under the empire its relation to the Viceroy of Shen-Kan was peculiar. The Viceroy's seat was at Lanchowfu, the capital city, commanding a fine German-built bridge over the western Yellow River; the treasurer and judge were also stationed there, but there was no governor. The Governor of Shensi was at the ancient capital of Sianfu, of course with his treasurer and judge. Sinkiang, with a governor at Tihwafu (the official name of Urumtsi), had a treasurer and an inferior class of judge, *in partibus*, so to speak, and was practically independent ruler of Turkestan with its Turki inhabitants up to the Altai, Pamir, and Himalaya ranges. The above four provinces, i. e. Manchuria and Turkestan, may in a general sense be said to be now ruled, like the purely Chinese eighteen provinces, by a Chinese *chiang-chün* and a Chinese *hsün-an*, with a treasurer (whose financial power is increased) and a judge (whose judicial power is increased), neither of whom is any longer advisory, and both of whom are more subordinate, in a general sense, than before.

PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION

Having now obtained a definite outline view of the relations between Peking and the provinces, we are in a position to express in much simpler terms the provincial administration. As before stated, all China Proper consists of about 1,500 *hsien*, that is, each a walled city and an area of, say, a thousand square miles. The *chih-shih* (formerly *chih-hsien*) had all powers in Manchu times, judicial, executive, tax-collecting, religious, and (subject to the special controls to be later

described) even joint military and joint educational : he had under him a number of assistant commissioned officers in control of great ports, great marts, and often even of great walled cities within his own thousand-mile jurisdiction. He was, in short, up to 1911, the Emperor's direct representative, the mayor, the sheriff, the lord-lieutenant, the judge of assize, the port authority, the collector all in one. He was (if he chose to be) a thoroughly effective man.

Each province had from fifty to over a hundred *hsien*, and every group of from three to ten *hsien* fell under a singularly ineffective officer called a *fu* : it is necessary to go into this because all maps up to 1911-16 will be observed to mark certain cities of the so-called first class as *fu* ; thus Canton is Kwangchowfu, and Peking is Shun-t'ien Fu. But in the whole history of China there never was such a thing as a *fu* city, nor had a *fu* 'mandarin' any specific or easily definable duties : the particular *hsien* city in which he had his *yamên* or praetorium was called the 'head *hsien*', and in the case of provincial capitals there were often two or even, in one or two cases, three head *hsien* clustered together within one wall, each *hsien* within that wall being (of course with its thousand-mile territory) a separate jurisdiction. Since 1911 the very name of *fu* has been totally abolished ; no such imaginary city exists, and the superfluous official over it, who was simply an intermediary between the effective *hsien* and the provincial government, has also been abolished.

Between the genuine *hsien* city and the imaginary *fu* city, it will be noticed on the maps there was a third, and this time an always real and walled city, called by foreigners a 'second-class city' or a *chou* ; some of these were 'subordinate *chou*' assimilated to a *hsien*, and some of them were 'independent *chou*' assimilated to a *fu*, and having one or more *hsien* under their jurisdiction ; these superfluous names, both of *chou* cities and *chou* offices, have been abolished, and all such cities are now *hsien*.

Finally, the maps mark certain cities (chiefly in special or outlying regions) as *t'ing* (not always walled), and these were,

like the *chou*, either subordinate or independent ; all these, too, have now become *hsien*. Thus a great simplification has taken place, much useless intermediary correspondence has been saved, and as a broad rule it may now be stated that every city, walled or (in the case of former *t'ing*) unwalled, is now a *hsien*.

In Manchu times a certain number of *fu*, independent *chou*, and independent *t'ing* were under the 'inspection' of a *tao* (i.e. *taotai*) ; no city ever was a *tao* city, and the official, like the *fu*, had his seat usually (not always) in this or that *hsien* : his routine duties were not quite so nebulous as those of the *fu* ; because, apart from the mere intermediary or inspection class of *tao*, some of them had, in addition, special military powers, or custom-house powers, or judicial powers, or salt gabelle powers, attached to them. The republic abolished these for a short time, but after various tentative changes it ended by re-establishing them, with more practical distribution and slightly changed name.

To sum up the whole question. Peking now conveys its administrative orders to each provincial civil governor, who transmits them, as also his own independent urgent orders, direct to the *hsien*, who, however, in most routine matters, sends his reports or receives his directions through the distributor or *tao* (*taoyin*). The British officer, who from the nature of things will find it easier to grasp more or less familiar French historical development than unfamiliar Chinese, will perhaps get the main principles more firmly fixed in his mind if he starts with the French Revolution, pictures all France as one of Napoleon's imperial provinces, and the old French provinces as the nebulous Chinese *tao* and *fu* ; finally, he must regard Napoleon's summary reduction of these loose provinces into reasonably proportioned 'tight' departments as the summary inclusion of all China into so many *hsien*, each under its own district magistrate or prefect.

There is another map confusion to avoid. The word *chow* (as in Kwangchowfu) has not the sense of *chow* 'city',

but means 'territory' or 'region', and occurs in the name of very many *fu*.

One more slight complication. There are numerous large trading towns or marts in China without more than 'village' rank. Many have a hundred thousand or even half a million inhabitants. This is the result of a process of urban expansion, and is now going on anew in what may be called Russified or Nipponified Manchuria, and even in Mongolia, and to a certain extent Tibet. Hankow is a striking purely Chinese case in point; until about twenty-five years ago, when it became a *t'ing*, it was a mere *chên* or 'market-town' under the petty *hsien* of Han-yang (across the Han river). This state of affairs may be compared to the mushroom growth of the port and mart of Liverpool, which a generation ago was, after Domesday theory, a mere appendage of Walton, itself a mere inland village, but possessing 'the' church. The great Kiangsi pottery town of Kingtehchen is another instance. A third is the great salt industry of Tzeliutsing (= self-flowing wells) in Szechwan, where nearly a million of people are congregated. Then again, there are the *chi*, or 'fairs', weekly, fortnightly, bi-weekly, or every tenth day; a deserted shabby street perhaps two miles long, with a scant population in rags, and a dismal row of mud houses in ruins is suddenly transformed on fair days into a bustling trade centre.

It must be stated that, despite all the above apparently complicated machinery, China is self-governed, except as to paying taxes. You may travel for days without seeing a trace of 'government' in any form whatever. No passports, no game laws, no great distinction between roads and private land for convenient access, no sanitation, no police, no bell-man—in short, apart from the rebellions, family feuds, and riots which occasionally break out, the whole vast country, dirty, shiftless, and undisciplined though it may be, lives in a complete state of personal freedom, subject only to customary patriarchal or family restraints based on the old customary ethics as summarized 2,400 years ago by Confucius and his school.

NAVAL AND MILITARY ADMINISTRATION

A word must now be said about naval and military administration. As to the former, it never existed at all, in any form worth attention, until in the sixties Sir Robert (then Mr.) Hart began with some 'customs cruisers'. The next step was the establishment under French auspices of the Pagoda Anchorage (Foochow) building slip, and a few years later the arrival of Captains Lang and Ching with the four Armstrong 'mosquito gun-boats'. As the 'northern and southern navies' of Tientsin and Nanking, supported by the auxiliary transport services of Canton and Foochow, gradually worked their way towards effectiveness, the services of Captain Lang were again sought by China in the hope of making a better show than had been done when the French shattered the Chinese fleet off Pagoda Anchorage in 1884. Ten years later the Japanese, in spite of the efforts of Lang (who had meanwhile left China in disgust), performed the same operation for the Chinese fleet off Weihaiwei. Since that time, in spite of desultory spasmodic efforts to restore naval 'power', on the whole the wiser policy has prevailed of *ne quid nimis*, and partly for want of funds, partly for want of full consecutive authority (which the Government is chary of granting), a policy of waiting has up to the moment prevailed, under Admiral Sah and one or two other fairly capable officers who have received a British training, and of abandoning for the present any attempt to establish a serious fleet.

As to the army, apart from dynastic changes and all kinds of vicissitudes throughout 2,000 years of history, it may be mentioned that under the decadent Manchu dynasty it had fallen into a condition of ridiculous ineptitude. This had already been the case before in 1644, when the native Chinese dynasty of Ming, unable for 300 years to protect itself adequately against the Mongols and at last against its own native rebels, was easily conquered by the Manchus, armed with nothing better than personal courage and powerful bows and arrows. There were never more than a million or so of adult

Manchu men, and about a quarter of this number were after the conquest distributed over China, say 200,000 at and around Peking, and 50,000 in all at a few provincial garrisons, of which the chief were Canton, Foochow, Hangchow, Nanking, Hankow (near it), and the capital of Szechwan, in other words, at places which Manchu horsemen could not easily reach from Peking in a few days. When conquests were made in Mongolia, Tibet, Turkestan, Cochin China, &c., it was always by a Manchu command and with a backbone of Manchu stiffening; but the bulk of the work was done by Chinese troops, who as a matter of fact are excellent soldiers under proper leading and care.

It was never the policy of the Manchus to leave the Chinese general in charge of the Chinese troops in each province any superfluous power: the Chinese material, so useful when utilized by a specially deputed Manchu general, speedily degenerated when not longer wanted in times of peace. Not only so, but the Manchu garrisons themselves, each under a Manchu *chiang-chün*, began to degenerate after the conquests of the eighteenth century. The general sloth which set in immediately after this coincided with the missions of Lord Macartney and Lord Amherst to Peking. Not only did the then new Emperor, at the head of his Manchu troops, abandon the Tartar practice of frontier hunting as a training for fighting, but the Peking garrisons and provincial cantonments alike gradually took to a life of indulgence. During the whole of the nineteenth century they were seldom called upon to fight. As for the Chinese troops or 'green flags' the provincial generals, colonels, and minor officers made fortunes by pocketing the men's pay, and such few men as actually appeared under the colours on review days were usually the sweepings of the streets. No wonder that when the first British war of 1839-42 broke out, little serious Chinese resistance was anywhere met with, except at Nanking and Chinkiang, where at least the proud Manchus had the courage to commit wholesale suicide with their families.

In the second war of 1858-60 the allies had equally little

difficulty in sweeping before them the combined Chinese and Manchus at Tientsin and Peking. Japan in Formosa and Loochoo (1874), the Russians in Kulja (1870-80), the French in Tonkin (1883-4), the Japanese in Korea (1885)—each in turn made light work of Chinese military pretensions, until at last the Japanese war of 1894-5 forced China as a whole, apart from its effete Government, seriously to think, especially when Russia, Germany, France, and Great Britain took advantage of China's abject helplessness to extend their occupied territory in Liaotung (Manchuria), Kiaochow (Shantung), Kwangchowwan (south coast), and Kowloon (opposite Hongkong). When even Italy and Portugal began to show signs of acquisitiveness China at last began to bestir herself in earnest, and the feelings of the people, apart from the Government, found a vent in the formidable 'Boxer' outbreak; which in turn led up to the Revolution of 1911, the Republic of 1912, and the abortive Constitutional Monarchy of 1916.

During the past ten years the once despised military classes have come into their own: formerly no decent educated man would be a soldier, and even the successful campaign generals, such as Tsêng Kuo-fan, Tso Tsung-t'ang, and Li Hung-chang, were always civilians. The Manchus at last set the example in 1906 by giving their princes military education and commands; the better classes of Chinese quickly took the cue, and now the military are in a fair way of becoming the 'praetorian' masters of China.

CONCLUSION

It must not be forgotten that the administrative system of China is still in a state of flux, and a vast amount of energy is being daily manifested by the various departments of state. Much of this is experimental and tentative, and may at any moment collapse under rebellion and anarchy. Consequently nothing is here said of the working of the new educational system; the provisional gendarmerie; the schools of agriculture and industry; the head customs control, nominally also in supreme charge of the foreign maritime customs; the

improved salt gabelle, vastly extended under the management of Sir R. Dane ; the numerous central and provincial foreign and native adviserships ; the diplomatic officers dispatched by the Peking Foreign Office to many of the provinces and great commercial centres ; the new prison acts, and the different grades of justice ; the ' country-clearing ' or order-restoring military commissions ; the stamp act, land transfer acts, licence acts, wine and tobacco monopolies, &c. ; in the administration of all which the *hsien* or new prefects will always take a practical share.

CHAPTER XI

BRITISH LAW AND ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE IN CHINA

Definitions—Exterritoriality—British Administration of Justice in China—
The Law administered by British Courts—British Law special to China
—Treaty Ports—Mixed Court—Foreign Possessions and Protectorates

DEFINITIONS

‘CHINA’ excludes Hongkong, Wei-hai-wei, Macao, Dairen, and Tsingtau (Kiaochow).

‘Foreigner’ includes British subject and excludes Chinese subject.

EXTERRITORIALITY

The cumbrous word ‘exterritoriality’ expresses the fact that persons live within the confines of any State under foreign law and foreign administration of justice, and not under those of the territorial sovereign. In China the subjects of the Treaty Powers—that is, of those States which have treaties with China—are amenable in China only to their own law administered by their own officials: thus a British subject is amenable to English law administered by British courts, a French citizen to French law administered by French courts, and so on; and a Chinese, of course, to Chinese courts. This system is very inferior in completeness and symmetry to the plenary jurisdiction of the territorial sovereign; but it works in practice more smoothly than could be expected. Its reason is, generally, the difference between Western and Eastern civilization, and, specifically, that in China, as in the old type of Asiatic Empire, punishments are barbarous and justice is administered according to good conscience (supposing that the conscience in question is good), whereas in Western States we have adopted in modern times more humane punishments, and have learnt from the

Romans to distrust the individual conscience, and to prefer the reign of positive law, to which the judge is bound to conform.

BRITISH ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE IN CHINA

Our Legislature has provided for the administration of justice to British subjects—that is, to all persons who owe allegiance to His Majesty or enjoy His Majesty's protection—by conferring upon the King the power to legislate for British subjects in China by Order-in-Council: this power now rests upon the Foreign Jurisdiction Act, 1890. Such Orders are made by the King, with the advice of His Privy Council, from time to time as the needs of the day may require. The principal China Order-in-Council, dated October 24, 1904, establishes a Supreme Court with two judges resident at Shanghai, and Provincial Courts, with the consul as judge, in the consular districts, the whole territory of the Chinese Republic being divided into 28 consular districts (the limits of which will be found defined in the Foreign Office List). More important civil and criminal cases are heard everywhere by a judge of the Supreme Court, the jurisdiction of which corresponds roughly with that of the High Court in England; while the jurisdiction of the Provincial Courts corresponds roughly with that of the County Courts and of justices of the peace in England. There is an appeal from a Provincial to the Supreme Court, and an appeal in civil cases from the Supreme Court to His Majesty's Privy Council in London. Further, there is an appeal, civil and criminal, from a judge of the Supreme Court to the Full Court consisting of both judges sitting together.

THE LAW ADMINISTERED BY BRITISH COURTS

The law administered by the above courts is to be found:

- (a) in Acts of the Imperial Parliament when these are made in express terms to apply to His Majesty's foreign jurisdiction, e. g. the Regimental Debts Act, 1893;
- (b) in Orders-in-Council.

The law falling under (a) is very sparse : the great body of the law falls under (b). The Orders-in-Council, generally speaking, apply to His Majesty's subjects in China, English law for the time being in force in England, but subject always to the special provisions of the Orders. The way to ascertain the law is therefore to inquire : Is there a special provision in the Orders ? and if there is not, then to inquire : What is the law of England ?

Again, subordinate legislation enacted in England by administrative orders of the various departments, under the authority of some Act of Parliament, is exercised in China by King's Regulations, e. g. Harbour, Pilotage, Prison, and General Port Regulations. Such regulations are made by His Majesty's Minister, and approved by the King through the Secretary of State, under the authority of art. 155-9 of the Order-in-Council, 1904.

Again Municipal By-Laws are made by the council of the settlement or concession in question and confirmed by His Majesty's Minister.

LAW SPECIAL TO CHINA

The general provisions of the law of England are known or can be ascertained : it will suffice if the more important provisions special to China are detailed here.

Smuggling.—Art. 70 of the Order-in-Council, 1904, makes smuggling or the attempt to smuggle into or out of China punishable by fine and imprisonment.

Levying War.—Art. 71 makes taking part in any operation of war in China punishable by fine, imprisonment, and deportation.

Piracy.—Art. 72 provides that the Supreme Court may try piracy wherever committed.

Violation of Treaty.—Art. 73 makes violation of any Treaty between His Majesty and China punishable in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty.

Sedition.—Any person publishing matter calculated to excite tumult or disorder may be tried and punished by the Supreme Court.

Offences against Religion.—Any person who publicly derides, mocks, or insults any religion or any religious service in China may be imprisoned and fined.

Deportation.—Where there is reasonable ground to apprehend that the conduct of any person is likely to produce, or excite to, a breach of the peace, he may be required to give security, and, on his failure, be deported from China.

Registration.—Every resident British subject shall in January of every year register himself at the Consulate of the consular district within which he is resident, failure subjecting him to fine and imprisonment.

TREATY-PORTS

Before the war of 1839–42 China was closed to foreigners, except a strangled trade with Canton. A treaty-port means a place opened by treaty to the residence and trade of foreigners. The ports vary in respect of the conditions under which foreigners reside at them ; and something must be said here about these conditions.

(a) Shanghai. The district open to foreign trade is called the International Settlement—an area within which foreigners are free to buy land, and to live under their own Municipal Government. The Municipal Charter is contained in the Land Regulations under which local government is vested in a popularly elected Council. That Council is the municipal authority not only for resident foreigners but for more than half a million Chinese inhabitants. The Council employs a large staff of civil servants and a police force nearly 2,000 strong : it has been very successful, and Shanghai enjoys a singularly efficient municipal government.

The French occupy a contiguous area which they call the French Concession.

(b) Canton, Tientsin, Hankow, Kiukiang, and Chinkiang. At these ports the land occupied by the British community is a concession to His Majesty's Government, and not a settlement as at Shanghai. A concession as we use the word in China is an area leased by the Chinese Government to His

Majesty's Government, and sublet in small building lots to British merchants, who manage their own municipal government through an elected council.

At Tientsin and Hankow similar concessions are also held by other Treaty Powers.

(c) Other Ports. At the other ports the area within which foreigners may live has usually not been strictly defined, nor do they enjoy formal municipal rights, although some attempt in that direction is often made by a road committee, or some such body.

MIXED COURTS

Although Chinese living within the settlement at Shanghai or the concessions at Canton and the other ports above mentioned are subject to Chinese administration, it has been found that the Chinese magistrate requires stiffening both in respect of character and of knowledge of law: this has been done by requiring that a foreign assessor shall sit with him in all cases in which a foreigner is plaintiff, or in which foreign interests are concerned. The court so formed, i. e. by a Chinese magistrate and a foreign assessor sitting together, is known as the mixed court, a term which, without explanation, might lead one astray, because this term was applied in Egypt to a very different institution. The large Chinese population and the wealth of the Shanghai settlement have made the Shanghai Mixed Court an important tribunal dealing with an immense mass of business, and having often thrown upon it the difficult duty of finding a rule to apply to those civil claims for which Chinese custom does not provide.

FOREIGN POSSESSIONS AND PROTECTORATES

Hongkong. This is of course British territory, enjoying the usual institutions of a crown colony.

Macao is a Portuguese possession administered by a governor.

Wei-hai-wei is a territory leased by the Chinese to the British Government, with plenary jurisdiction over the

Chinese inhabitants. It is administered by a commissioner with magistrates and a judge who is usually resident at Shanghai. The law administered is British law under Orders-in-Council, as in China Proper, except that for Chinese due regard is had to native custom.

Kuantung (capital, Dairen) is a territory leased by Japan.

Tsingtau (Kiaochow) is a territory formerly leased by Germany, but now in the occupation of Japan.

Kwangchowwan is a territory leased to France, and under the administration of the Governor of Indo-China.

CHAPTER XII

ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY OF CHINA

Introduction—Natural Regions—North China—Central China—Chekiang and Fukien—South China—Foreign trade.

INTRODUCTION

As the density of population in China averages over 200 to the square mile, it is obvious that the economic resources of the country must be considerable. Among these agriculture undoubtedly holds the first place, and the majority of the Chinese gain their living more or less directly by the cultivation of the soil. For this predominance of agriculture there are several reasons. The country falls almost entirely within the monsoon region of Asia, and the combination of summer heat and rainfall affords the conditions necessary for the production of rice and other important food crops over the greater part of the country. The pressure of an increasing population upon the means of subsistence has, moreover, been partly met by more intensive methods of cultivation. The development of irrigation, frequent and laborious tillage, and the careful utilization of the waste products of the community, have all contributed to an increased yield from the land. To such an extent, indeed, has the close cultivation of the soil been carried, that in places there is a population of over 2,000 to the square mile. Agricultural holdings are generally small, frequently they do not exceed an acre or two in extent, and the whole attention of the farmer and his family is devoted to obtaining from the land as large a return as possible. Under such conditions pastoral farming practically does not exist except upon ground too poor or too hilly for any other purpose. Oxen, donkeys, and buffalo are kept, but as beasts of burden, and practically every farmer owns pigs and poultry.

But although the Chinese cultivator displays the greatest industry, and sometimes an empirical knowledge of important agricultural principles, there is little doubt but that he might increase the return from the land by the adoption of more scientific methods of cultivation. This is more especially the case where processes of an industrial nature are involved. In the production of silk, for example, he has had to yield first place to the Japanese, and from many markets his tea has been driven out by that from India and Ceylon. In both cases a little timely foresight and a less conservative attitude would have done much to enable him to maintain his position.

Apart from agriculture the economic resources of the country have been but imperfectly developed. Mineral deposits are believed to be widely distributed, but their extent is not fully known, and they have up to the present only been partially exploited. Even where they are worked the methods employed are frequently of a primitive description, and the total output is relatively insignificant. Manufactures are widespread, but they are designed in the main to meet local needs, and are, with a few exceptions, of too rudimentary and inadequate a character to find a market abroad. In some of the ports modern methods have been adopted and modern machinery installed, but such concerns are generally in the hands of foreigners. In China as a whole it is probably still true that human labour is cheaper than machinery. In other respects also the country suffers from lack of development. There are few good roads, the means of transport are generally of a primitive description, rivers and canals are not utilized as they might be. Within recent years considerable progress has been made with the construction of railways, but here also much remains to be done, and until it is done economic progress must necessarily be slow.

NATURAL REGIONS

A study of the physical structure, climate, and vegetation of China enables us to distinguish three major geographical regions which we may respectively designate as Northern,

Central, and Southern China. In addition there are the provinces of Chekiang and Fukien, which are in a sense intermediate between Central and South China. A survey of the country can best be made by treating each of these regions separately, as the relations between geographical conditions and economic development will thus be more clearly brought out. At the same time it must be borne in mind that the comparative lack of statistical information which exists forbids that definiteness of exposition which would be possible in the case of a country whose economic resources had been systematically surveyed.

NORTH CHINA

Includes the provinces of Kansu, Shensi (north of the **Tsin-ling** mountains), Shansi, Honan, Chihli, and Shantung. Though these provinces lie in the main in the basin of the Huang Ho, the northern part of Chihli is drained by the Pei Ho and the tributaries of the Liao, much of Shantung by short rivers flowing directly to the sea, and the south-east of Honan by the affluents of the Huai. Nevertheless, they form together a fairly well-defined geographical region.

Kansu, Shensi, Shansi, the west of Honan, and the east of Shantung are mountainous, while the east of Honan, the greater part of Chihli, and the west of Shantung belong to the plain of the Huang Ho. Throughout the mountainous area, except in parts of Kansu and in Shantung, there are great deposits of loess, which are generally of considerable fertility. This loess, which is an earth of brown-yellow colour so soft that one can easily rub it to pieces with the fingers, is believed to be the product of rock-waste in Central Asia, carried from that region by the agency of wind and water. Its great fertility is probably due in part to the inclusion within it of organic matter derived from the decay of grasses growing upon its surface, and in part to capillary action, drawing from below ground water containing lime dissolved from the underlying limestone rocks. On the other hand it is very porous, and the crops grown upon it accordingly suffer in periods of drought,

while the practice of irrigation, in which the Chinese excel, is less feasible here than elsewhere, as the rivers have cut their way down through the loess on to the hard rocks below. On the plains of the Huang Ho also there are wide stretches of loess, although in the vicinity of the rivers sandy soils generally prevail.

The climate of the Huang Ho basin is more extreme than in any other part of China. Over the greater part of the region the winters are cold, and in many places the rivers are frozen for several months of the year. The summers are hot, and in July the mean temperature of the lowlands is at least 80° F. Precipitation varies with local conditions, but as a rule averages between 20 and 40 inches a year. Vegetation, of course, is mainly controlled by climate. The severe winters exclude most tropical and sub-tropical perennial plants from the region; on the other hand the hot summers permit the cultivation of cotton, and, in a few favoured localities, of rice. Otherwise the vegetation is, generally speaking, that of the temperate zone. Among the more common trees are the birch, beech, oak, pine, and poplar; the fruits include apples, pears, apricots, and peaches; wheat, millet, peas, and beans are among the staple food-stuffs cultivated.

Agriculture

In all parts of the region under consideration agriculture is an important pursuit, but among the districts especially noted for their fertility are the valley of the Wei in Shensi, the plain of Taiyüan in Shansi, the region drained by the Lo in Honan, and various parts of the Great Plain. In addition to the widely distributed food-crops already mentioned, some rice is produced in the valley of the Wei; cotton is grown in several provinces, but not to the same extent as further south, though it is said that the output of Shantung is steadily increasing; opium was formerly an important crop of Kansu, and is probably still grown to some extent; wild silk is obtained from silkworms which feed upon the leaves of the oak in

Honan, Chihli, and more especially Shantung. Among other industrial plants may be mentioned the soya-bean which is grown here, but not so extensively as in Manchuria ; ground-nuts, which are exported from Shensi and Shantung, and sesamum and gingelly, both of which are used in the manufacture of vegetable oils. The cultivation of fruit flourishes in various parts of the region, but is of special importance in the south-west of Shansi, in the south-west of Chihli, and in the west of Shantung. In Shantung also the vine is cultivated, and the manufacture of wine is an industry of some importance.

The timber resources of North China have been much impoverished. Reckless deforestation has been permitted, and except around the villages little replanting has taken place. There are still considerable forested areas in the south-west of Kansu, in parts of Shansi, and on the Tsin-ling mountains in Shensi, but elsewhere the land has been denuded of its most valuable timber. As a result the damage done by floods has in many cases been intensified, and much good agricultural soil has been washed away. Within recent years experimental plantations have been established by Britain and Germany at Weihaiwei and Tsingtau respectively.

Minerals

Such investigations as have been made have revealed the existence of considerable deposits of mineral wealth throughout the region, but comparatively little has as yet been done towards its exploitation. Coal is perhaps most widely distributed. Huge deposits of that mineral are known to exist in Shansi, where it is mined at Pingtingchow and elsewhere, but by native methods, and the output is not great. Much more important under existing conditions are the mines owned by the Kailan Mining Administration at Kaiping and Lanchow, about 80 miles from Tientsin. In 1914 these produced 2,780,000 tons of good bituminous coal. The Pekin Syndicate has mines at Tsinghwachen in Honan, where good steam coal and anthracite are produced. In Shantung the coalfields are found in the western part of the mountainous region, mainly

in Weih sien and Poshan. Some belong to a German company, while others are in the possession of the Chinese. Iron is also widely distributed, but it is not yet certain that the deposits are sufficiently great to assure the growth of a large iron industry. Other minerals, including gold, copper, and petroleum, are found in various parts of the region. Salt is obtained from a salt lake in the south-east of Shansi, and by evaporation from sea-water along the coast.

Manufactures

Manufactured articles are in the main produced by native methods. Woollen goods, much in demand on account of the cold winters, are made at Lanchowfu in Kansu and elsewhere. In all parts of the country the spinning and weaving of cotton is carried on as a domestic industry. Modern cotton mills, on the other hand, have been erected at Tientsin, Tsingtau, and several other towns. The manufacture of silk goods is an important industry in Shantung and Honan. Steam filatures have been established at Chefoo and Tsingtau, but much of the raw silk is still reeled by hand. The province of Shantung is also noted for the manufacture of pongees, which are made from the tussah silk produced by the wild silkworm. Straw-plait is an important product in the west of Shantung and the south of Chihli, where a suitable variety of wheat straw is grown.

Trade

In the upper part of its course the Huang Ho flows over a rocky bed, while in the lower part it is frequently obstructed by shallows caused by the deposition of material brought down from the loess region. It is, therefore, as a general rule, unsuitable for navigation, and no great port has developed near its mouth. Tientsin, on the Pei Ho, has accordingly become the great commercial centre of Northern China. It is at the meeting place of routes from Manchuria and Mongolia, as well as from the west and the south of China, and it serves as the main collecting and distributing centre of the greater part of the basin of the Huang Ho. Chefoo, on the northern shore of

the Shantung peninsula, has suffered greatly within recent years from the competition of the German (now the Japanese) port of Tsingtau on the southern shore. The latter, with its better harbour and with railway facilities, has diverted much trade from Chefoo which that port is unlikely to regain.

CENTRAL CHINA

The basin of the Yangtse is in many respects the most important region in China. Physically it may be regarded as a series of steps downward from the Tibetan plateau, each of which has been tilted backward in such a way as to cause the formation of a lake basin between its eastern edge and the step farther to the west. These lake basins formed areas of sedimentation which have been wholly or partially filled up, and now consist to a great extent of fertile land. Szechwan, part of which forms the first step, is mountainous in the west and in the extreme east; in the centre, at an elevation varying from 600 to 2,000 feet, lies the famous Red Basin. This basin is a region of great fertility, and one part of it, the Chengtu plateau, is probably the most densely populated agricultural area in the world. The next step downward is represented by the provinces of Hupeh and Hunan. In the former there is much fertile soil in the valley of its main river, the Han, but the hills are generally barren except in the west where they are forested; in the latter, which is drained by the Hsiang Kiang, the Yüan Kiang, and the Tzū Kiang, the most intensively cultivated areas lie on the alluvial soils round the Tung-t'ing lake, into which they drain, and in the valleys of the rivers themselves, more especially in those of the Hsiang and the lower Yüan. The hills are cultivated in some places, forested in others. Farther to the east and at a lower elevation lie the provinces of Kiangsi and Anhwei. The greater part of Kiangsi is mountainous, but there are considerable areas of fertile soil round the P'o-yang lake in the north, in the valleys of the Kan and other rivers, and on the lower slopes of the hills. In Anhwei the chief agricultural areas lie in the south, in the valley of the Yangtse, and in the north, in the plain of the

Huai. Kiangsu, which falls to sea-level, is generally a plain, and, especially in the south, is of great fertility. The northern parts of Anhwei and Kiangsu, it may be here noted, belong climatically to the Great Plain of the Huang Ho.

The climate of the Yangtse basin presents a marked contrast to that of the Huang Ho. The summers are longer and hotter, while the winters are much milder. In January the mean sea-level temperature is about 40° F., but the thermometer frequently falls to freezing-point, or lower, and ice is sometimes found on the smaller lakes. The precipitation also is greater. South of the Yangtse the mean annual rainfall varies from 60 to 80 inches : north of the river it is between 40 and 60 inches except in the north-west, where it is less. As a result of these climatic differences a sub-tropical vegetation takes the place of the temperate vegetation of the Huang Ho basin. The bamboo, the camphor-tree, the mulberry, the banyan, the camellia, and the orange are all widely distributed, together with trees which produce wax, tallow, and varnish ; rice becomes the chief food of the people and is grown everywhere ; tea and sugar-cane are cultivated in various places ; China-grass and other fibres are grown. In addition, variations in altitude permit most of the plants of the previous region to thrive.

Agriculture

The general conditions under which agriculture is carried on in this region also differ from those which prevail in the north. Except over limited areas loess soils are not found. The possibilities of irrigation, on the other hand, are much greater, and in several provinces there is an extensive canal system devised partly for that purpose. The land is also more productive, as favourable climatic conditions make it possible to obtain two, and sometimes three, crops in the course of the year.

Opium was formerly one of the staple crops of the region, but except in the less accessible parts of Szechwan, Kiangsi, and Kiangsu, its cultivation seems to have been almost entirely suppressed. In Szechwan, where it was perhaps

most extensively grown, attempts have been made to replace it by cotton and wheat, in Hupeh by tobacco, and in Kiangsi by silk. The cultivation of the mulberry is the basis of the large and important silk industry of the region. Unfortunately the methods employed in raising the silkworm are still of a primitive nature, and, as has been frequently urged, even a slight advance in sericulture would lead to a largely increased yield of raw silk. Among the more important silk-producing provinces are Szechwan, which is noted for yellow silk, and Kiangsu, still more famous for white silk. Tea is an important crop in Hupeh, Hunan, Kiangsi, and Anhwei, Anhwei being noted for green teas, the others for black. Here again the methods employed, both in the cultivation of the tea-plant and in the preparation of the leaf, are unscientific, and China has almost entirely lost the British market because of her failure to produce a tea which is at once good and cheap. Cotton is extensively cultivated in the valley of the Han, in the lowlands of Hunan and Kiangsi, and in the delta lands of the Yangtse. The staple is short, but the best varieties are whiter and softer than Indian cotton, and there is a considerable demand for it both at home and abroad. The average yield per acre in China is estimated at 176 lb., which is considerably better than the Indian yield, and not far short of the American. It is said, however, that in the Yangtse basin crops averaging between 300 and 400 lb. to the acre are sometimes obtained. Within recent years various attempts have been made to improve the quality of the silk, tea, and cotton produced in this region, but it is questionable whether much progress has as yet been made. Other industrial crops include ramie, from which grass-cloth is made, tobacco, the demand for which appears to have grown with the suppression of opium, medicinal plants, indigo, hemp, and vegetable wax and tallow.

Minerals

In the region under consideration there are important deposits of coal and iron, though the mineral wealth as a whole

is probably not so great as in the basin of the Huang Ho. Coal is obtained by native methods in Szechwan, Hunan, and elsewhere, but the most important fields worked on modern lines are those belonging to the Han Yeh Ping Iron and Coal Company at Pingsianghsien in Kiangsi. These now produce over half a million tons per annum. At T'ieh-shan-pu in Hupeh the same Company also works what has been described as one of the richest iron mines in the world and from it obtains the ore which is used in the iron-works at Hanyang. China is the chief producer of antimony in the world, and much of her supply comes from Hunan, where it is widely distributed. The raw ore is treated for export at Changsha, where there now are important refining works. Lead and zinc are obtained in increasing quantities from the Shui-k'ou-shan mines, also situated in Hunan. Salt is an important product of Szechwan, where there are large brine-wells. Other deposits of mineral wealth throughout the region are but imperfectly known.

Manufactures

The basin of the Yangtse is one of varied industrial activity. The domestic manufacture of cotton goods is a common pursuit, and in Hupeh native workshops produce piece-goods for export to other parts of China. Modern factories for spinning and weaving cotton have been established at Shanghai, Hankow, Changsha, Tsingpo, and elsewhere. The manufacture of silk fabrics is followed mainly in those provinces in which the silkworm is reared, and Szechwan and Kiangsu are particularly noted for their piece-goods. Modern steam filatures have been erected at Shanghai, Chinkiang, and several other towns. At Hanyang, on the other side of the Yangtse from Hankow, one of the most interesting industrial experiments in China has been initiated. There, a Chinese company already mentioned (the Han Yeh Ping Iron and Coal Company), working on European lines but under Chinese control, has established important iron- and steel-works, and not only manufactures steel rails for use in China itself, but exports pig-iron to Japan and the United States. It also

controls the Yangtse Engineering Works, some distance lower down the river. The town of Kingtehchen, in Kiangsi, is noted all over China for the manufacture of porcelain and earthenware, the kaolin being obtained from decaying granitic rocks in the north-east of the province. Before the T'ai-p'ing rebellion the product was held in high esteem, but it now consists mainly of rice-bowls, which are sent to all parts of the empire.

Among the manufactures of Shanghai, which is becoming an important industrial centre, may also be noted ship-building, flour-milling, paper-making, brewing, and tanning. Miscellaneous native products of the Yangtse basin include Indian ink, indigo, paper, and furniture.

Trade

Shanghai, which is situated upon the Huang-p'u (Whangpoo), about twelve miles from its confluence with the Yangtse, is the most important centre of foreign trade in the whole of China. Not only does it serve the greater part of the rich and fertile Yangtse basin, but, owing to the absence of first-class ports farther north, it acts as the commercial entrepôt for much of the basin of the Huang Ho as well. It lies at a considerable distance from the sea, but is situated at the first point on the Yangtse suitable for a great port. Chinkiang is at the crossing-point of the Grand Canal and the Yangtse. Unfortunately the construction of the southern part of the canal is defective, and during periods of low water it cannot carry all the goods it otherwise would. Accordingly, since the opening of the Tientsin-Pukow railway some of the trade of Chinkiang has been diverted to Nanking, which lies on the Yangtse opposite to Pukow. The latter port is also connected with Shanghai, and with the further development of railway communications will probably assume considerable importance. Kiukiang, which is situated on the south bank of the Yangtse, near the mouth of the Poyang lake, is the port for much of the goods produced in the vicinity of the lake and of the rivers draining into it. Hankow, which is part of the great triple town of Hankow-Hanyang-Wuchang, has

grown up at the confluence of the Han with the main river. It is already connected with Peking by rail, and will eventually be linked up with Canton. When, in addition, the projected lines east and west along the Yangtse valley have been constructed, Hankow will not only be a great railway centre, but one of the most important commercial towns in the whole of China. Ichang is situated at the lower end of the rapids of the Yangtse, and here all goods for Chungking, the great port of Szechwan, were formerly transhipped from steamship to junk. Within the last few years, however, specially constructed steamers with cargo-floats in tow, have succeeded in making the passage to Chungking during a considerable part of each year. Were pains taken to remove some of the worst obstructions in the course of the river, the steamer traffic, and hence the trade of Chungking, would probably benefit to a great extent.

CHEKIANG AND FUKIEN

The two provinces of Chekiang and Fukien occupy an intermediate position between the basin of the Yangtse and that of the Si Kiang. They belong in the main to the massif of Southern China, and the various ranges of which that massif is composed here run from south-west to north-east, or more or less parallel to the coast. The rivers are therefore short and swift, and communication with the interior is difficult. The north of Chekiang belongs to the delta of the Yangtse, but elsewhere there is little lowland except in the valleys of the rivers, and in order to obtain a cultivable area the hills are often terraced to a considerable height. In Chekiang especially, many of the hill slopes are exceedingly fertile, and both provinces are densely populated. The climate is favourable to the cultivation of many sub-tropical products. The summers are long and hot, and the winters are mild, the lowlands at least being protected by the hills from the cold winds of winter. The food crops include rice, wheat, and sugar-cane, the latter being grown mainly in the south. Tea was formerly an important product of both pro-

vinces, and that of Fukien had for long a very high reputation in the world's markets. Nowadays, however, most of that which is produced is consumed within the country itself. In Chekiang the mulberry is cultivated, and the manufacture of silk is an important industry; piece-goods noted for their excellence are woven at Hangchow and elsewhere. The camphor-tree is found in both provinces, and the distillation of camphor has for some years been extensively carried on. Unfortunately trees have not been planted to replace those cut down, and the end of the industry is said to be in sight. Cotton is grown throughout the region, and there are cotton-mills at Hangchow and Ningpo. Minerals are believed to be abundant in Fukien, but so far little has been done for their development.

Owing to the indented nature of its coast-line the region is provided with some good ports. Hangchow, on Hangchow Bay, is at the southern entrance to the Grand Canal. Ningpo, on the left bank of the Yung Kiang and near the south shore of Hangchow Bay, has considerable local trade. Amoy, situated on an island at the mouth of the Lung Kiang, has one of the best harbours in the south of China, and was formerly the great centre for the export of tea from Formosa.

SOUTH CHINA

Consists of the four provinces of Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, and Kwangtung. The whole of Kwangsi and Kwangtung lie within the basin of the Si Kiang, but parts of Yunnan and Kweichow drain to the north and to the south of that river. The greater part of Yunnan forms a plateau with an average elevation of about 7,000 feet, but it is much cut up by mountain ranges. In the plains between these ranges there are considerable areas of fertile soil, and it is there that the bulk of the inhabitants are found. The valleys in the west and south of the province are generally unhealthy, and are in the main occupied by more primitive people. Kweichow is also mountainous; in the west the average

height of the land is about 5,000 feet, and in the east about 3,000 feet. Here, too, there are many high plains which are devoted to agriculture, but much of the land is infertile. In Kwangsi the elevation falls to 2,000 to 3,000 feet, and the greater part of the province is covered with hills. There are few large plains, and it is only in the east and south-east that there are extensive areas of cultivated land. After Kansu and Yunnan this province is the least densely populated in the whole of China Proper. In Kwangtung the land descends to the delta of the Si Kiang. The more mountainous districts are rocky and unproductive, but the lowlands are very fertile and yield valuable crops.

Throughout the whole region the climate is sub-tropical in the lowlands, but in the uplands varies according to altitude. The summers are long and hot, the winters are, on the whole, mild ; in January the mean temperature at Canton is between 55° and 60° F., though the thermometer occasionally falls below freezing-point. The mean annual precipitation varies from 60 to 80 inches.

South China, with the exception of the lowland area of Kwangtung, is in a more undeveloped condition than any other part of the country. For this there are several reasons. The physical structure of the region has afforded a refuge to the aboriginal inhabitants and has retarded the occupation and settlement of the country by the Chinese. The great distance from the seat of government has hindered the enforcement of order, and brigandage is still rife in many quarters. Further, competent observers are inclined to agree that in Yunnan at least the excessive use of opium has had a most disastrous effect upon the moral fibre of the population.

Owing to the varied topography and climate of the region its vegetation is probably more diversified than any found elsewhere in China. Among the principal trees in the lowland areas are ebony, mahogany, and teak ; the fruits include the banana, the pineapple, and the pomegranate ; caoutchouc, aniseed, and the trees which produce tallow, vegetable wax, and camphor are important from the industrial point of view.

Agriculture

As elsewhere, agriculture is the chief pursuit of the people. The food-crops include rice and sugar-cane, maize and other cereals. Opium was formerly an important crop in Yunnan and Kweichow, and it appears to be still cultivated to some extent in the less accessible districts. The suppression of the drug has undoubtedly caused great temporary loss to the farmers in these provinces. Tea is grown in Yunnan and Kwangtung, but the output of the latter province at least does not appear to be held in high repute. The wild silkworm is found in Yunnan, and in Kwangtung the mulberry is cultivated, but in neither case is the silk obtained equal to the best of that produced in the basin of the Yangtse. Among other vegetable products of this region are cotton, tobacco, cassia, spices, and ramie.

Minerals

The mineral wealth of the country is as yet but imperfectly known. Especially is this the case in Yunnan, where it is believed to be extensively distributed. The most important mines in that province at the present time are at Kokiuchang, near Mengtsz, where large quantities of tin are obtained by native methods. Among the other minerals of the region, which are all worked to a greater or less extent, are antimony, copper, lead, and zinc. Coal is plentiful, and is mined at several places, but chiefly at Shiuchow in the province of Kwangtung. It is not improbable that the future may show that the mineral resources of this region are of considerable value.

Manufactures

The weaving of cotton and silk goods, the manufacture of sugar, paper-making, and industries of a similar nature are all carried on in various parts of the region. In Kwangtung industrial activity is more varied, and Canton and Fatshan are important manufacturing centres where cotton, woollen, and silk fabrics, lacquer-ware, matting, paper, and pottery are all produced on a considerable scale.

Trade

Canton, which is the commercial centre for the whole basin of the Si Kiang, is connected by waterways with almost every part of the province of Kwangtung. It is also in easy communication with Hongkong, and large ocean-going steamers are able to ascend the river as far as Whampoa, twelve miles below the city. Within recent years, however, Canton has lost some of its trade to Wuchow, which is now the entrepôt for Kwangsi, and to Samshui, which taps the traffic on the North River. Steamers can ascend from Canton as far as Wuchow, but only during the wet season, and much of the trade of the former city, not only with Kwangtung and Kwangsi, but with the south of Kweichow and the east of Yunnan, is now carried on by means of motor-boats.

Owing to the mountainous nature of the country the west and north of Yunnan are difficult to reach from the basin of the Si Kiang, and much of the goods imported into these districts comes from Burma through Tengyueh to Talifu, whence it is distributed over a wide area, extending even into Szechwan. Various proposals for connecting Talifu with a Burmese port have as yet failed to materialize.

FOREIGN TRADE

The chief exports of China include silk, soya beans, bean cake and bean oil, tea, cotton, sesamum, hides, straw-braid, tin, and various other articles mainly of an agricultural nature. For long China was the chief silk-producing country in the world, a position which is now occupied by Japan. The greatly extended use of soya beans and their products in Europe has led to a remarkable increase in the amount exported, and they now hold the second place among the exports of the country. They come, however, from Manchuria rather than from China Proper. Tea is exported principally to Russia and to the United States, the former country taking the bulk of the better varieties. The quantity sent to the United Kingdom does not much exceed 5 per

cent. of its total import. Raw cotton is both imported and exported. A certain amount of the Chinese product is sent to Japan, where it is preferred on account of its whiteness, while Indian cotton is imported for use in the mills of Shanghai and other towns.

The principal imports include cotton goods, rice, oil, sugar, metals, railway plant, fish, and coal. Almost 30 per cent. of the total imports consist of cotton goods, and come from the United Kingdom, India, Japan, and the United States. Piece-goods are imported mainly from the United Kingdom, but the United States and Japan are increasing their trade in certain directions. Cotton yarn, which is imported to serve as a strong warp along with a weft of Chinese cotton, is supplied by India and Japan. Opium formerly ranked next in value to cotton goods, but is now of much less importance. Rice is shipped from Indo-China mainly to the province of Kwangtung. Kerosene oil, which has rapidly sprung into favour in China as an illuminant, comes from the United States, Sumatra, and Borneo. Sugar is imported from Java, coal from Japan, and iron and steel goods from the United Kingdom, Belgium, Germany, and the United States.

CHAPTER XIII

THE FINANCIAL CONDITION OF CHINA

Currency—Taxation—Revenue—Foreign Debt—General Conclusion—The Chinese Customs and *Likin* Stations.

IN order to understand the financial condition of China we must first form some idea of the currency in which the revenue is collected, the sources from which the taxes are derived, and the fiscal devices employed for transferring them from the private purse of the taxpayer to the public Exchequer of the Chinese Republic.

CURRENCY

The monetary unit in China is the Chinese ounce or tael¹ of silver. The weight is not uniform; it varies from one commercial centre to another. The silver also is of varying purity, rated according to a theoretic standard which differs with the locality. It circulates in the form of ingots, or 'shoes', as they are called, of sycee² of different shapes and sizes up to fifty or sixty taels in weight. A tael weighs about $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz. troy. The purity of sycee is rated in thousandths of pure silver. Thus the Haikwan or Customs tael in which dues are paid is 992·3 parts of 1,000 fine; the K'u-p'ing or Government Treasury tael 987 fine. The Shanghai Ts'ao-p'ing or 'Tribute' tael (used in commercial transactions) contains $518\frac{1}{2}$ grains of silver 1,000 fine.

The only Chinese coin proper is the cash,³ originally 1/1000 of a tael of silver. It is about the size of an English halfpenny, but thinner. It is provided with a square hole in the centre

¹ From the Malayan *tahil*, Indian *tola*, a weight equal to 180 grains troy.

² Cantonese *Sai sze*, fine silk, in allusion to the fine threads into which pure silver can be drawn.

³ Sanskrit *Kārsha*, equal to 1/400 of a tola, through the Portuguese *caixa*.

by which the cash are strung into rolls of 100, of which 10 rolls go to the *tiao* or string of cash. A full *tiao* is, therefore, 1,000 cash.

Paper money in the form of *tiao* notes are commonly met with, but the issue being left to private banks the circulation is strictly circumscribed as to area. The *tiao* notes of one town are not accepted in another or neighbouring town.

It will be seen that the currency of China is lacking in the marks of portability, uniformity, divisibility, and cognizability, which are generally recognized as essential to any system of currency intended to fulfil the double functions of a medium of exchange and a standard of value. The need of a more accurate and convenient circulating medium was increasingly felt as transactions with foreigners multiplied. About the middle of last century the Mexican dollar was introduced and, as an adjunct to the ordinary Chinese currency, came into general use, first in exchanges between foreigners themselves and subsequently in financing the crops with which foreigners were chiefly concerned, tea, silk, and cotton. The advantages to trade of a uniform coin like the Mexican dollar, its convenience and economy, were obvious enough, but the Chinese were not disposed to credit the foreigners with philanthropic motives in introducing it. If there was any profit to be made the Chinese thought they might as well secure it for themselves. Mints were established at the provincial capitals of Kwangtung, Kiangnan, Hupeh, and Anhwei (also at Tientsin) for the coinage of Chinese dollars resembling Mexicans in appearance. At first the issues were considerable, but the coins, having only behind them the guarantee of the province in which they were issued, were never freely accepted outside of it. The mints accordingly fell back upon the more lucrative business of striking subsidiary coins¹ in ten and twenty cent pieces of 800 fine, as against 900 for the dollar. A profit of 10 per cent. was more than the mints could resist. Coins were turned out as

¹ A recent estimate, quoted by Dr. Vissering, puts the silver subsidiary coins in circulation at 1,500,000,000.

fast as they could be issued, with the result that the redundancy of the subsidiary coinage, unless sternly checked by the Central Government, is likely to give rise, is indeed already giving rise, to a dislocation of prices which may involve serious social results. It is said that the Republic is alive to this danger and that, but for the difficulty of getting rid of vested interests, they would abolish provincial issues altogether and substitute a national currency for the whole Empire, bearing the stamp of the Republic and the effigy of its first President, Yüan Shih-k'ai. Such a coin has already been struck and is in circulation. In appearance it leaves little to be desired, and if only the standard of 416 grs. weight and 900 fine is strictly maintained, the Yuan dollar might well be hailed as the first step in Chinese currency reform.¹ The dollar has been adopted by the Chinese Government as the money of account in presenting their annual budget. Railway fares are paid and the accounts of the companies kept in dollars. Sir Richard Dane determined from the first to collect his Salt Gabelle in dollars, and he has succeeded beyond all expectation. The gradual substitution of the dollar for the tael as the monetary unit of China seems probable. The advantages which would accrue to China from the adoption of a uniform currency are incalculable, and by his firmness and courage in accelerating the movement Sir Richard Dane has rendered a service to China of even deeper significance than his reform of the Salt Gabelle.

✓ The native banking system has been developed in accordance with the genius of the people. Its functions, which upon the whole appear to be adequately performed, are confined to the internal exchanges of the country. It is possible for a traveller to obtain a credit from a native banker on his various correspondents which will enable him to pay his way from one end of China to the other ; by no possibility, when

¹ A recent analysis of a number of Yuan dollars at a foreign mint shows a deviation from the standard, after allowing for the usual remedy, which does not make an auspicious beginning. The average was 414½ weight, 889½ fineness as compared with the 416 grains 900 fine of the British dollar and Japanese yen.

the journey is ended, can the traveller obtain from a native bank a draft for the balance of his account upon any other country whatsoever. For such accommodation he must have recourse to the foreign banks.¹

The official status under the Republic of the Bank of China (Paid-up Capital Tls. 5,000,000) and the Chiaotung Bank or Bank of Communications (Capital Dollars 60,000,000), both Government institutions, may lead to an improvement in the control of the currency ; it may eventually assist in the regulation of the foreign exchanges, should China ever adopt, as has been proposed, a modified form of the gold standard, such as prevails in India and the Straits Settlements, or the *étalon boiteux* favoured by Dr. Vissering, which has been worked with such success in Java. But that day is far off, if only on account of the impracticability of China's acquiring under present conditions the reserve of gold required to make any such scheme workable. In spite of the defection of the surrounding countries, Japan, Java, the Philippines, Siam, the Straits Settlements, and India, China is likely to prove loyal for a long time to come to the silver standard of value with all its concomitant disadvantages of uncertain and fluctuating exchange. Between gold and silver standard countries there can be no parity to which the exchanges are always tending. The only limit set to the variations in value of the silver tael as expressed in terms of gold is the price of bar silver, above which, after adding shipping charges, it cannot rise, and below which, after deducting shipping charges, it cannot fall. In China, as Dr. Vissering observes, the silver currency is an article of barter, of which neither the weight nor the quality is anywhere fixed.

It would be difficult to exaggerate the evils daily inflicted upon China by an inchoate and irregular currency, the wastefulness, the chicanery, the oppression, the injustice, the loss of happiness, the temper to which it gives rise. One does not know where to turn to find a parallel to such a state

¹ There are ten foreign banks established in China with an aggregate capital and reserve of over £32,000,000.

of things unless to England at the close of the seventeenth century. There is more than one passage in the famous twenty-first chapter of Macaulay's *History* which recalls the China of to-day. 'It may well be doubted', Macaulay says, 'whether all the misery inflicted on the English nation in a quarter of a century by bad kings, bad ministers, bad parliaments, and bad judges, was equal to the misery caused in a single year by bad crowns and bad shillings. . . . When the great instrument of exchange became thoroughly deranged, all trade, all industry was smitten as with a palsy. The evil was felt daily and hourly in almost every place and by every class, in the dairy and on the threshing-floor, by the anvil and by the loom, on the billows of the ocean, and in the depths of the mine. Nothing could be purchased without a dispute. Over any counter there was wrangling from morning to night. The workman and his employer had a quarrel as regularly as the Saturday came round. On a fair day or a market day the clamours, the reproaches, the taunts, the curses were incessant ; and it was well if no booth was overturned and no head broken. The simple and the careless were pillaged without mercy by extortioners whose demands grew even more rapidly than the money shrank ! ' And so on. Allowing for Macaulay's rhetoric, this is no untrue picture of what is going on in China to-day. There is no more vital reform, none more urgent, none more salutary and far-reaching in result, none, but for the vested interests it encounters, so simple to effect as the reform of the currency of China. It would, we believe, do more to establish the peace and prosperity of that country than any other reform whatsoever.

TAXATION

The basis of taxation in China is the claim of the Emperor, as lord of the soil, to a share in its produce. The rental was fixed by the permanent settlement of 1712,¹ upon which to

¹ Cf. the Bengal permanent settlement of 1793, when the demand of the State was fixed and made for ever unalterable by Lord Cornwallis.

this day, in theory at least, the land-tax is assessed for the whole of China. In practice surcharges are added which on the most moderate estimate treble the cost to the tax-payer without adding to the revenue of the Central Government. The tax is, in fact, farmed, only the surplus being remitted to Peking after the expenses of provincial administration, in the widest sense of that word, have been deducted as first charge. Mr. Jamieson, writing in 1905, estimated the total land-tax leviable at Taels 375,000,000. The reported collection—that is, the surplus remitted to Peking—was at that time only Taels 26,000,000, while the actual collection, writes Mr. Morse, was almost certainly not less than Taels 102,000,000, and the possible collection, as estimated by such a high authority as Sir Robert Hart, was Taels 400,000,000.¹

Likin² is a tax on merchandise in transit which was first introduced in 1852. The tax contravenes the spirit, if not the letter, of the Treaty of Nanking of 1842 by which the Treaty-ports were opened to foreign trade. It may be said, however, to have been conditionally condoned by its incorporation in the security for the Hukuang Railway Loan of 1911, pending its abolition as provided for in the Mackay Treaty of 1902. It is unfortunate that foreigners should have acquiesced, even temporarily, in a tax which is at once expensive in collection, vexatious in operation, uncertain in incidence, and unfruitful in results. Its yield is now merged with other taxes, but in the Budget of 1911 it appeared to contribute Taels 44,000,000 to the National Exchequer.

It is unnecessary to deal in detail with the remaining miscellaneous taxes which in the same vague and desultory way contribute a reluctant and grudging surplus to the central Exchequer of the Republic. These form part of a fiscal system which may be justly condemned in so far as the taxes it imposes, in being neither equal, nor certain, nor economical, nor progressively productive, offend against four out of the

¹ *The Trade and Administration of the Chinese Empire*, by H. B. Morse.

² Li, a hundredth part; Kin, money, meaning a percentage.

five canons of taxation originally laid down by Adam Smith, and now generally accepted by all civilized nations.

In striking contrast to the fiscal methods of native administration, the two great departments of the Revenue which have been placed under foreign control, the Maritime Customs and the Salt Gabelle, stand out as an object-lesson of what may be accomplished even in China by proper accounting. The transfer of the Maritime Customs to foreign control followed as a consequence of the capture of the native city of Shanghai by the T'ai-p'ing rebels in 1853. The native Custom House being closed, the foreign merchants who, to their honour be it said, showed no desire to evade their obligations, deposited with their respective consuls bonds for the duties for which they had become liable. The obvious inconvenience of this plan led to its being superseded later by an Agreement with the Chinese authorities for the establishment of a Customs Board, from which the present Maritime Customs service was evolved under Sir Robert Hart, who was appointed Inspector-General in 1861. From Tael 8,000,000, or 11,000,000 dollars, in 1885, the revenue collected for the Central Government has increased to \$50,000,000 in 1914.

In 1913 the Republic being hard put to it to find the increased revenue required to meet the revolutionary claims, the Salt Gabelle was placed under the control of Sir Richard Dane. Under his administration the revenue from salt, which in 1905 produced only \$17,000,000, contributed last year \$70,000,000 to the Exchequer of the Republic.

REVENUE

Until within quite recent years it has never been the practice of the Chinese Government to publish an annual budget statement. Various attempts have been made from time to time by foreigners to supply the deficiency, but the results obtained are admittedly little better than guesswork. In 1901 Sir Robert Hart, than whom none had better opportunities of forming an opinion, estimated the total annual revenue of China at Tael 90,400,000, made up as follows :

SIR ROBERT HART'S ESTIMATE FOR THE YEAR 1901

Taels.

Land-tax in silver	26,500,000
Land-tax in grain	3,100,000
Salt Tax	13,500,000
Imperial Maritime Customs	23,800,000
Likin	16,000,000
Native Customs	2,700,000
Native opium	2,200,000
Provincial Income	2,600,000
	<hr/>
	90,400,000

Four years later, in 1905, Mr. E. H. Parker arrived at a total of Taels 102,924,000. We give his figures as revised by Mr. H. B. Morse, the former head of the statistical department of the Chinese Customs.

1905

MR. E. H. PARKER'S ESTIMATE AS REVISED BY MR. H. B. MORSE

Taels.

Land-tax in money	25,887,000
Tribute whether commuted or not	7,420,000
Native Customs	4,160,000
Salt Gabelle	12,600,000
Miscellaneous taxes, old and new	3,856,000
Foreign Customs	35,111,000
Likin on general merchandise and native opium	13,890,000
	<hr/>
Total	102,924,000

It should be noted that all foreign estimates of the budget of China are by the nature of the case limited to the data supplied by the *Peking Gazette*, namely the amounts which actually reach Peking, and take no account of the amounts retained by the provinces. The importance of this proviso will be seen when we come to consider the budgets framed by the Chinese themselves. Mr. Parker's budget of Taels 102,924,000, for example, should, if we follow Mr. Morse's estimate of the amounts retained for provincial and local administration, be increased to Taels 284,154,000, or Dollars 394,658,333, if it is to be taken as a measure of the total annual revenue of the State. How does this estimate compare with the actual Chinese budget of to-day?

With the advent of the Chinese Republic in 1912 the

180 THE FINANCIAL CONDITION OF CHINA

attention of the Government was naturally focussed on finance. An annual budget became a necessity of the new official régime, and no less than six were presented in the course of the first two years. The following is the revised budget of the Republic of China for the financial year ending June 30, 1916 :

ORDINARY REVENUE

		<i>Income.</i>
1. Land-tax	\$95,972,818	
2. Customs Revenue	71,320,970	
3. Salt Revenue	84,771,365	
4. Tax on Commodities	40,271,368	
5. Direct and Miscellaneous Tax	32,341,704	
6. Direct and Miscellaneous Subs.	14,067,574	
7. Income of Government Investment	2,621,261	
8. Miscellaneous Income of Provinces	6,927,694	
9. Income of Central Administrations	1,635,464	
10. Income directly received by Central Government	76,306,927	\$426,237,145

EXTRAORDINARY REVENUE

1. Land-tax	\$1,580,695	
2. Customs Revenue	847,359	
3. Tax on Commodities	18,766	
4. Direct and Miscellaneous	4,496,333	
5. Income of Govt. Investment	16,703	
6. Miscellaneous Inc. of Provinces	338,253	
7. Income of Cent. Administrations	1,359,698	
8. Income directly received by Government	17,051,808	
9. National Loan	20,000,000	
		45,709,615
		<u>\$471,946,760</u>

ORDINARY EXPENDITURE

		<i>Expenditure.</i>
1. Waichiaopu ¹	\$3,276,677	
2. Ministry of Interior	49,653,982	
3. Ministry of Finance	53,531,625	
4. Ministry of Army	135,813,986	
5. Ministry of Navy	17,101,779	
6. Ministry of Justice	7,665,772	
7. Ministry of Education	12,611,583	
8. Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce	3,762,244	
9. Ministry of Communications	1,577,408	
10. Bureau of Mongolia and Tibet	947,230	
		<u>\$285,942,286</u>

¹ Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

	<i>Expenditure.</i>
Brought forward	\$285,942,286

EXTRAORDINARY EXPENDITURE

1. Waichiaou ¹	\$826,141
2. Ministry of Interior	2,105,864
3. Ministry of Finance	175,302,789
4. Ministry of Army	6,438,727
5. Ministry of Navy	102,758
6. Ministry of Justice	45,572
7. Ministry of Education	225,724
8. Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce	376,792
9. Ministry of Communications	112,783
10. Bureau of Mongolia and Tibet	40,000
	185,577,150
	<u>\$471,519,436</u>

Under the Republic the budgets are based upon the total annual collection, and not, as formerly, upon the amounts contributed by the provinces to Peking. But even allowing for the increase from this cause, the discrepancy between former estimates by foreigners of the Revenue of China and the figures of the official budgets will not have escaped observation, and requires to be explained. It will not do, after the manner of a recent critic, to dismiss the official figures with the remark that they must be considered as more or less fanciful, as an estimate of what it might be possible to collect rather than of what is actually collected. That would be to fall into the common fallacy in logic of dragging in the far-fetched explanation when an adequate one may be found nearer at hand. There is reason to believe that the provincial contributions as published in the *Peking Gazette*, which, as has already been explained, formed the basis of the foreign estimates, were regularly and deliberately understated. We have also to consider that the Republican Government has exhibited a fiscal activity in excess of their Imperial predecessors, which has helped to stanch at least some of the leakage at the source. It is probable, also, that through the agency of the stamp duties sources of revenue have been detected which formerly escaped scot-free. Finally,

¹ Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

it is certain that under the Republic there has been a marked advance both in security and in revenue. The discrepancy, in fact, seems susceptible of a rational explanation, and while the figures may not be completely realized, the official budget of China need not be rejected as illusory and untrustworthy.

The expenditure side of the account balances to within 500 dollars of the revenue, but how far this oriental nicety corresponds with the reality we have no means of judging. But upon the whole it would seem that this early budget may be taken as an honest first attempt to unravel the tangled skein of Chinese finance, the value of which may be expected to increase as time goes on, and as the figures of each successive budget can be tested by those of its forerunners.

FOREIGN DEBT

At her first entry into the comity of nations China showed a reluctance to contract a foreign debt, which was of happy augury for her future credit. It would have been well for China if that policy had been maintained. Unfortunately, the ill-starred war with Japan in 1894 brought in its train the payment of an indemnity amounting to £32,000,000, which provided the occasion, as the tangible security which had been created by the foreign-controlled Maritime Customs provided the means, for having recourse to a foreign loan. The foreign loan of 1894 proved to be the first of a long series which culminated in the Reorganization Loan of 1913 for £25,000,000.

The capital sum of China's Foreign Debt outstanding on the 31st December, 1915, was, in round figures, £180,000,000. This total includes :

1. The indemnity exacted by the Powers after the anti-Foreign outbreak in 1900.
2. Unproductive loans, viz. Chinese Government borrowings for indemnities and administrative purposes by loans publicly issued in Foreign markets.
3. Productive loans, viz. loans for railway construction similarly issued.

The total may be roughly stated under these headings as follows :

Boxer Indemnity	£64,000,000
Unproductive Loans	68,000,000
Productive Loans	36,000,000
	<hr/>
	£168,000,000

In addition to this known 'Foreign Debt' the Chinese Government has of recent years raised money abroad by the sale, privately, of Treasury Bills estimated as amounting to £12,000,000.

Taking this estimate of £12,000,000 we get a total Foreign Debt of £180,000,000, of which only the £36,000,000 spent on railways¹ produces any return. The remainder, £144,000,000 in all, has produced nothing at all. The country has derived no benefit from it, but much harm. It has served no other end than to confer upon others the power to levy a tribute on the country of China, to wring from the peasant, who was not consulted in the matter and would not have consented if he had been, or perhaps even have understood what all the dispute was about, a share of the produce of his unresting labour.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

The general impression left by a survey of the fiscal system of China is that the methods adopted are in the highest degree wasteful, inept, and uncertain. It would be rash, however, to assume that because the people are badly taxed, therefore they are overtaxed. Indeed a comparison with India, where the general conditions bear the closest available analogy to those of China, points to an opposite conclusion.

	<i>India.</i>	<i>China.</i>
Population	244,000,000	400,000,000
Area of square miles	1,800,000	1,900,000
Taxation exclusive of Land-tax ²	£27,000,000	£37,000,000
Burden of taxation per head	2s. 2½d.	1s. 10½d.
National Debt	£274,000,000	£180,000,000
Burden of debt per head	22s. 6d.	9s.

¹ There are 6,300 miles of railways open in China as compared with 35,000 miles in India.

² The tax on land is not properly a tax, but a rent paid by the occupier to the State as sovereign lord of the soil.

The population and taxable area of China are larger than in India. The standard of comfort in the former is higher. The Chinese peasant is better clad, better nourished, and at least as well housed as the Indian ryot. There is more physical energy in China than in India, greater ability to pay. And yet the burden of taxation is lighter, namely 1s. 10½d. per head in China as compared with 2s. 2½d. in India. The burden of debt is also less in China—9s. per head, as compared with 22s. 6d. in India—but here the comparison is vitiated by the excessive proportion in China of unproductive debt. The true test of national debt is not its size but its quality, what it stands for. No less than £262,000,000 of the total Indian debt of £274,000,000 represents investment in Indian railways and irrigation works, conferring the greatest value upon the country and returning good interest to the bondholder. Of China's £180,000,000 debt, no less a sum than £144,000,000, or nearly 80 per cent., makes no return at all and stands for nothing.

There are few public debts which would emerge unscathed from a strict investigation of their origin, and it is not necessary to be too censorious in the case of China. What is done is done, and if we deplore the existence of this mass of unproductive debt there is no need to exaggerate its consequences. It might have been worse. The burden of debt is still light. The revenues hypothecated as security are already more than sufficient to provide for the service, that is the payment of interest and principal, of all existing loans. China is ill provided with the means of communication, and there is much work to be done in linking up the existing lines of railway on which construction has been temporarily suspended by the European War. For these and other public works loans will be required for which the mineral and other undeveloped resources of the country, if opened up, should furnish ample security. More important than these material things, more important even than their unexhausted taxable capacity, is the security afforded by the character of the Chinese nation. In the first century of the Christian era a Chinaman's word

was known to be as good as his bond. It is so to-day. Dynasties may rise and fall, a monarchy may give place to a republic, but we have yet to hear the word repudiation in connexion with China.

THE CHINESE CUSTOMS AND LIKIN STATIONS

There are in China three main establishments for the levying of duties on trade—the *Haikuan* (Maritime Customs) or *Hsin-kuan* (New Customs), the *Chiu-kuan* (Old Customs, known as the Native Customs), and the *Li-chin-chü* (Likin offices)—all of which are administered separately.

(1) The Haikuan or Maritime Customs are under a system of foreign control perfected by the late Sir Robert Hart. The Nanking Treaty of 1842 provided for a fair and reasonable tariff of export and import duties to be levied at the five treaty-ports. Thus, when Shanghai was opened to foreign trade in 1843 a Custom House was established there. But when the native city was taken by the T'ai-p'ing rebels in 1853 no duties were collected for a time until the British and American consuls agreed to collect the 5 per cent. export and import dues from their own nationals. This led to the establishment of a Custom House in 1854 in the European quarter of Shanghai under foreign control, the British, American, and French Consuls each nominating an inspector. The British inspector, Mr. T. F. Wade (afterwards Sir Thomas Wade), alone of the three could speak Chinese, and the supreme control consequently devolved on him. He was succeeded by Mr. H. N. Lay; and the latter, after the Treaty of Tientsin in 1858, was appointed the first Inspector-General of the Customs Service, which in due course was extended to the other open ports. Mr. Lay resigned later, and in 1863 Mr. Robert Hart was appointed Inspector-General of the Imperial Maritime Customs. The head offices were transferred from Shanghai to Peking, and a complete reorganization of the service was effected. Mr. Hart, who was knighted in 1882, retained this post until his death in 1911,

though he actually left Peking in 1908. His successor is Mr. F. A. Aglen.

In 1898 the Chinese Government, when contracting a loan secured on the Customs receipts, bound themselves not to alter the administration of the Imperial Maritime Customs until the loan was repaid, and the principle has been accepted that a British subject shall be the head of the Customs service so long as British trade preponderates in China.

In 1906 the Maritime Customs were transferred from the Foreign Office and placed under the control of the *Shui-wu-chü* or Revenue Council.

In 1913 the service employed 7,411 persons, the principal posts being held by 1,375 foreigners (of twenty nationalities), of whom rather more than half were British.

Besides collecting duties on imports and exports the Maritime Customs collect (1) duties on the coasting trade in foreign-built ships, whether Chinese or foreign owned, (2) tonnage dues on shipping, (3) transit duties exempting foreign imports from further taxation on removal inland, and (4) likin on foreign opium. They are also responsible for the buoys, light-vessels, beacons, and lighthouses on the coast and some inland waterways, and at Shanghai they maintain a force of river police. All moneys collected by the Customs are paid to an official Customs Bank, attached to each office, which is under the control of a Chinese superintendent.

The export and import duty is 5 per cent. *ad valorem*, except on a few articles, of which some are charged a higher rate, and some are duty-free. Fire-arms, gunpowder, and salt are prohibited articles.

Transit duties were fixed by the Tientsin Treaty at one-half of the import duty in the case of dutiable articles, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. *ad valorem* in the case of duty-free articles.

Coastwise trade duties are levied at the same rate as transit duties on native articles imported through a China port after having been shipped from another China port. The articles have to pay at the latter port export duties at the foreign export rate.

(2) The Chiu-kuan, or Native Customs, date back to remote times, and exist to-day alongside the Maritime Customs at the treaty-ports, where they deal with the native junk traffic, and at all important trade stations on the coast and inland. Since 1901 these Native Customs within 15 miles of a treaty-port have been placed under the supervision of the foreign Commissioner of Customs at that port. Under the late dynasty the native customs service was controlled by a central authority at Peking. The exactions which are made under numerous headings are very heavy, and the old customs duties combined with the likin often amount to several times the original value of the goods.

(3) The Li-chin-chü. The likin is a tax imposed on goods in transit. It is said to have been levied originally to meet the additional expenditure caused by the T'ai-p'ing Rebellion, but it was extended in 1861 throughout the country. Likin stations or barriers exist at all large towns and on the main routes of commerce by land and water. The official tariff of rates is frequently ignored in favour of bargaining between the officials and traders. The tax is repeated at different likin stations when the goods travel long distances. Guilds and regular traders meet likin charges by the payment of lump sums. The tax collected is generally 3 per cent. at the departure station and 2 per cent. at each inspection station, but the amount collected within a province is usually arranged so as not to exceed 10 per cent. Foreign imports and exports which have paid the transit duties are exempt from the likin toll.

Besides the above-mentioned taxes there is the Lo-ti-shui, a kind of *octroi*, levied at the gates of cities. Thus a 3 per cent. *ad valorem* duty is levied on all goods belonging to foreigners at the Chung-wên-mên gate of Peking. Rates, however, are not uniform, and goods belonging to foreign merchants are usually taxed lower than Chinese merchandise.

The *China Year-book* gives the revenues from the Native Customs for 1912 as about £433,386, and from the likin for 1912 as about £3,200,000 (estimated). The revenue from

these sources fluctuated widely, while that from the Maritime Customs shows a steady increase. The latter was 30,007,044 Haikuan taels in 1902, and 39,950,612 in 1912. The value of the Haikuan tael, in which the Maritime Customs returns are always reckoned, is subject to constant variation, but the above figures represented about £3,950,000 and £5,992,600 respectively.

CHAPTER XIV

MONEY, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES

MONEY

THE Chinese unit of currency is the tael (*liang*), which is not a coin, but a weight representing a Chinese ounce of silver of a varying standard of purity. The tael is divided as follows :

1 tael (<i>liang</i>)	= 10 mace or <i>ch'ien</i> .
1 mace (<i>ch'ien</i>)	= 10 candareens or <i>fên</i> .
1 candareen (<i>fên</i>)	= 10 cash or <i>li</i> .

Hence a tael is nominally 1,000 cash; but in reality the rate of exchange varies widely, and the tael may be worth as little as 800 cash or as much as 1,800.

There are various kinds of taels, differing in value according to weight and quality. Of these the Haikuan tael is the unit in which the duties levied by the Maritime Customs are calculated. Its exchange value is always varying, and the exchange rates of the Haikuan tael in foreign currencies are settled each month by the Customs authorities. In 1913 it varied from 3*s.* 2½*d.* in January to 2*s.* 10½*d.* in December.

The K'u-p'ing tael is the Treasury unit, in which all Government taxes and dues other than Maritime Customs are calculated. In theory its value is uniform throughout the Empire.

The Ts'ao-p'ing tael is in general use in Shanghai, and foreign exchange rates are quoted in it by banks.

The Canton tael is used for weighing bar silver in Hong-kong, Shanghai, and Canton.

In converting one tael into another three elements have to be considered, weight, fineness of the silver, and premium,

which is regulated by convention or old custom. As a result we find that—

100 Haikuan taels = 111.40 Shanghai taels or 105.215 Tientsin taels.

100 K'u-p'ing taels = 109.60 Shanghai taels.

100 Haikuan taels = 101.642 K'u-p'ing taels.

The currency in actual circulation consists of *yin-liang* (silver lumps or ingots, such as 'shoe-silver'), *yüan-yin* (silver dollars), *hsiao-yang-ch'ien* (small silver pieces), *t'ung-tzü* (copper coins), *t'ung-ch'ien* (copper 'cash'), *liang* notes, dollar notes, and *ch'ien* notes. Foreign money consists of silver dollars, small silver pieces, *liang* notes, and dollar notes. The one coin which has a general circulation throughout China is the copper cash (*t'ung-ch'ien*). The rest have their face value only in the provinces in which they are minted, and circulate in other provinces at varying rates of exchange. In some cases the rates of exchange are affected by capricious reasons, as, for instance, the temporary popularity of a certain kind of dollar in a certain district irrespective of the purity of the coin. Some kinds of foreign money circulate freely in the treaty-ports. On the other hand, some of the notes issued by Chinese banks and exchange houses are only valid in the place of issue. So that it behoves the traveller to look ahead, and when moving to a new place to provide himself with the currency of the new locality.

To return to the individual forms of currency, the *yin-liang* or silver lumps or ingots, known also as *yin-tzü* or *yin-ting*, are of various types, viz. *yüan-pao*, generally of 50 taels, known as 'shoe-money' from the shape of the lump; *hsiao-yüan-pao*, generally 10 taels in weight; and *hsiao-ting*, generally 5 taels and hemispherical in form. These silver lumps are used in the larger transactions; and there is much variation in their exchange value. Their quality is determined by *Kung-ku-chü* (Public Assay Houses) or *Yin-lu* (Silver Houses). The former are found in all large towns. They test the weight and quality of the silver, and inscribe their verdict on the face

of the lump. The *Yin-lu* (or *Lu-fang*) melt the silver bullion and cast it into silver lumps, inscribing the quality and quantity of the metal on the lump, as well as the name of the house and date of casting. Both types of assay houses accept responsibility for the lumps which bear their signatures. Another name for the silver lumps is *sycee*.

The silver dollar, popularly known as *ta-yang-ch'ien*, and the smaller silver coins as *hsiao-yang-ch'ien*, are issued at the provincial mints. Their value fluctuates with the rate of exchange, and the dollars of one province are at a discount in another. The dollar is the value of 100 cents, and the smaller silver coins include 50-cent, 20-cent, 10-cent, and 5-cent pieces.

Besides the native dollars there are numerous other dollars in circulation, such as the old Spanish dollar, which is now scarce and highly prized in certain districts; the Mexican dollar (which is in general use in Shanghai and the neighbourhood); the Hongkong and Straits dollars. All of them are subject to fluctuations in rates of exchange; and, except when a certain type of dollar happens to be in fashion, they will as a rule be at a discount with regard to the local Chinese coin.

The *t'ung-tzu*, or copper coins, are of two kinds, two-cent (= about 20 cash) and one-cent pieces: they contain 95 per cent. of pure copper and 5 per cent. zinc, but like the silver coins they are only honoured at their face value in the province in which they were minted.

The *t'ung-ch'ien*, or copper cash (nominally containing 50 per cent. copper), are small flat disks with a square hole in the middle. They are the most ancient coin of China, and the only one which is universally recognized throughout the Empire; but owing to their varying quality they are subject to fluctuations in the exchange. They include *hsiao-ch'ien*, a poor type of cash, and smaller than the *chih-ch'ien* or Government cash. The latter are of two kinds, the larger cash worth 20 *wén*¹ and the smaller worth 10 *wén*. 50 of the larger and

¹ *Wén* here is a unit of calculation and not an actual coin. The word is also used as a numerative of coins, e. g. *i wén ch'ien* = one cash.

100 of the smaller strung together are known as 1 *tiao*, worth 1,000 *wên*. The exchange quotations of these cash are fixed by the Association of Exchange Houses (*Ch'ien-yeh Kung-so*), the tael being sometimes valued at 1,200 cash and sometimes at as much as 1,800.

The paper money issued by Chinese exchange houses and banks consists of tael notes (*yin-p'iao*), dollar notes (*yang-ch'ien-p'iao*), and copper cash notes (*ch'ien-p'iao*). The dollar notes are for 1, 5, and 10 dollars, and the cash notes for 1 *tiao* up to 10 *tiao*. These notes are only negotiable at face value in the city in which they are issued.

The foreign coins current in China consist of old Spanish dollars, Hongkong and Mexican dollars, the subsidiary silver pieces issued at the Hongkong mint, and the Japanese *yen*. The foreign notes (tael, dollar, and *ch'ien*) are those issued by the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, Chartered Bank of India Australia and China, Yokohama Specie Bank, Bank of Taiwan, Russo-Asiatic Bank, Banque de l'Indo-Chine, Deutsch-Asiatische Bank, and International Banking Corporation. The coins circulate freely in the treaty ports and larger cities of China, but the notes only in the city of issue. See Chapter XIII.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

The weights and measures of China are, if possible, more diverse and confusing than the currency. Not only are there many different scales in use for weighing, but the measures differ with different localities; and the only thing constant is their denominations.

Linear Measures

10 fên	= 1 ts'un (inch).
10 ts'un	= 1 ch'ih (foot).
5 ch'ih	= 1 pu.
10 ch'ih	= 1 chang.
180 chang	= 1 li.

It is estimated that there are several hundred kinds of *ch'ih* in use in China, the length varying from 8.6 to 27.8 inches.

The different trades, for instance, have different standard lengths, and these standards vary in different places. Take the tailors' and carpenters' measures at five important cities :

	Tailors' <i>ch'ih</i> .	Carpenters' <i>ch'ih</i> .
Peking	13.45–13.58 English inches	12.68 English inches
Tientsin	13.14 „	12.35 „
Hankow	13.90 „	13.80 „
Shanghai	13.85–14.05 „	11.14 „
Canton	14.80 „	12.70 „

To get over the difficulty caused by these discrepancies, Great Britain, France, and Germany made an agreement with the Chinese Government that for purposes of foreign trade a fixed standard should be recognized in which one *ch'ih* = 14.1 English inches, 358 French millimetres, and 13.7 German Zoll.

The *li*, which is theoretically 2,115 ft. or $\frac{2}{5}$ of a mile, is usually reckoned as a third of a mile.

Surface Measures

25 square <i>ch'ih</i>	= 1 pu or kung.
240 pu	= 1 mou.
100 mou	= 1 <i>ch'ing</i> .

The *mou* is regarded at Shanghai by custom as one-sixth of an English acre, or 806.65 square yards.

Measures of Capacity

10 shao	= 1 ko.
10 ko	= 1 shêng.
10 shêng	= 1 tou.
5 tou	= 1 hu.
10 tou	= 1 shih.

Measures of capacity are seldom used except for rice and grain. There is no uniformity in actual measuring owing to

variations in the capacity of the measures used. The *tou* for tribute purposes = 10.31 litres : in ordinary use it varies from 1.13 to 2.5 English gallons.

Measures of Weight

10 li	= 1 fên.
10 fên	= 1 ch'ien or mace.
10 ch'ien	= 1 liang or tael.
16 liang	= 1 chin or catty.
100 chin	= 1 tan or picul.

For purposes of foreign trade these weights are fixed as follows :

1 liang = 583.3 grs. = $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz. av. = 37.783 grammes.

1 chin = $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. or 604.53 grammes.

1 tan = $133\frac{1}{2}$ lb. or 60.453 kilos.

In native trade the *chin* varies from 12 to 42.5 ounces, and the number of *chin* in a *tan* varies from 90 to 280.

A note in the United States Commerce Reports, April 22, 1915, gives further information. A new law has been promulgated to secure uniformity in weights and measures. It provides for the inspection of weights and measures used in China, imposing fines for the use of untested and fraudulent measures ; and sanctions the establishment of a special plant for the manufacture of weights and measures in order to secure uniformity. It is based on a double system, one being the standard metric unit, the other based on the *builder's foot* for length and on the *Kuping tael* (liang) for weight.

The units of length, area, capacity, and weight with their metric and American equivalents are :

Length. 1 ch'ih = 0.32 metre = 1.049867 ft.

Surface. 1 mou (6,000 sq. ch'ih) = 0.06144 hectare = 0.15182 acre.

Capacity. 1 shêng = 10.354 litres = 9.112 liquid quarts or 2.278 gallons.

Weight. 1 liang = 37.301 grammes = 1.31561 oz. av.

The term *li* is used to express (a) 0.001 ch'ih (also 1,800 ch'ih), (b) 0.01 mou, and (c) 0.001 liang.

CHAPTER XV

RAILWAYS

RAILWAY construction in China has been a comparatively slow process. Every natural incentive has been present—teeming populations, vast quantities of produce and large tracts of easy country—but railways were far too modern for the old governing classes who feared loss of authority with the coming of new habits, and the masses were taught to regard them as injurious to the religious ideas which permeated the national life.

The Chino-Japanese War (1894–5) caused the first serious breach in the wall of prejudice against railways. A narrow-gauge line of 10 miles, between Shanghai and Woosung, had been built in 1876 and torn up two years later: in 1880 a track of 7 miles had been laid from the Kaiping coal-mines to the bank of a canal, and this had been expanded gradually and in spite of much opposition from 1887 to 1890 into a railway extending from Tientsin to Kuyeh; and some 60 miles were constructed in North Formosa between 1887 and 1893. But in 1896 the first important concession was made to the Russian Government to shorten the connexion with Vladivostok by a line across Manchuria (the Chinese Eastern Railway), and this was closely followed by concessions to Germany in Shantung, and to England in Kiangsu and Chihli. In 1896 only 370 miles were in operation; in 1906 this mileage had increased to 2,330; in 1911 it was 5,800; and at the end of 1914 it was 6,300.

The whole subject of Chinese railways is dealt with in detail in a separate volume, and for present purposes it will be sufficient to give a summary of the principal lines and projects in the following subdivisions:

I. Manchuria.

- II. Railways north of Peking.
- III. Railways north of the Yangtse.
- IV. Railways south of the Yangtse.

I. MANCHURIA

- (1) THE CHINESE EASTERN RAILWAY (Russian).
- (2) THE SOUTH MANCHURIAN RAILWAY (Japanese).

(1) The **Chinese Eastern Railway** was built under a concession granted to Russia by the Chinese Government in 1896 in order to continue the Trans-Siberian line across Manchuria to Vladivostok instead of following the circuitous route along the Amur. The main line was opened in 1901. The distance from Manchouli (Manchuria station) to Vladivostok is 1,069 miles. The line is single and the gauge 5 ft. There is one tunnel of 2 miles at mile 231 from Manchouli, and four shorter ones between Harbin and Vladivostok. The most important bridges are on the Sungari River, one at Harbin and the other at Laosiakow. The line is guarded by Russian troops, the number being limited under the Treaty of Portsmouth to 15 per kilometre or about 25,000 in all.

Branch.—A light railway of 17 miles, metre gauge, connects **Tsitsihar** with the main line at Angangki station. It was opened in 1909.

Projects and extensions.—The following are contemplated by the Russian Government, and for some of them agreements have been completed :

(a) **Harbin-Blagoveschensk.** This will leave the main line at Tuitsingshan, 19 miles NW. of Harbin, and thence go N. to Aigun and Blagoveschensk on the Amur. Approximate length 328 miles.

(b) **Kirin-Hailin.** The latter is a small station on the main line 209 miles SE. of Harbin.

(c) **Tsitsihar-Taonanfu.** This project conflicts with a concession granted in 1910 to a Chinese company supported by British and American financiers.

(d) **Manchouli-Urga.** Urga is the chief town of North Mongolia and about 500 miles from Manchouli.

(2) The **South Manchurian Railway** is Japanese. The main line from the Sungari River to Mukden and Dairen was formerly part of the Chinese Eastern Railway and was ceded to Japan after the Russo-Japanese War. This line is 495 miles long. From Dairen to Sukiatunkai, 238 miles, it is double; north of this it is single, though some of the bridges have been built for a double track. The gauge is standard (4 ft. 8½ in.). There are no tunnels, but a considerable number of important bridges.

Branches.—(a) **Mukden-Antung**, also known as the Ampō line. It was built as a light railway by the Japanese Government during the Russo-Japanese War and afterwards converted into a standard-gauge railway (1911). Connexion with the Korean system was established by a bridge over the Yalu River. It is 170 miles long, and runs mostly through mountainous country. There are 24 tunnels and numerous bridges.

(b) **Kwanchengtze (Changchun)-Kirin**, nominally Chinese, but the control is in Japanese hands. The line is of standard gauge, 79 miles long, and single. It was completed in 1912.

(c) **Nan-kuan-ling-Port Arthur (Lü-shun-k'ou)**, 30 miles.

(d) **Tashihkiao-Newchwang (Yingkow)**, 13 miles.

(e) **Fushun** colliery line, leaving the main line at Sukiatunkai—34 miles.

(f) **Yentai** colliery line, leaving the main line at Yentai—10 miles.

Projects and extensions.—The following are contemplated, and for (b) and (d) a loan has already been floated in Japan:

(a) **Kirin** to the **Tumen River** at Hoiryong or Hnchun; distance about 240 miles.

(b) **Kaiyüan** (on the main line 65 miles N. of Mukden) east to **Hailungfu**, 130 miles, and thence north to **Kirin**, 240 miles.

(c) **Szeping kai-Taonanfu**, via Liaoyüanchow (Chengchia-tun), about 230 miles. Bridge across the Liao river.

(d) **Kwanchengtze (Changchun) to Taonanfu**, about 150 miles.

(e) **Taonanfu to Chengtehfu (Jehol)**, about 470 miles.

II. RAILWAYS NORTH OF PEKING

(1) **PEKING-MUKDEN (King-Fêng or Ching-Fêng) RAILWAY.**

(2) **PEKING-KALGAN-SUIYŪAN (King-Chang and Chang-Sui) RAILWAY.**

(1) **Peking-Mukden Railway.** The line had its origin in a standard-gauge tramway connecting the Kaiping colliery with a canal some 7 miles distant, which was completed in 1881. A Chinese company, formed in 1886, extended this as a railway to Lutai, Tangku, and Tientsin in 1887, and northward to Kuyeh and the Linsi colliery in 1889 and 1890. A Chinese Government administration carried the railway to the Great Wall at Shanhaikwan for strategic reasons in 1894. After the Chino-Japanese War it was extended to Peking on the north-west and to Sinminfu on the north-east with the assistance of British capital raised in 1898. The section from Sinminfu to Mukden was purchased in 1907 from Japan, by whom it had been constructed during the Russo-Japanese campaign.

The main line runs from Peking SE. to Tientsin (mile 87) and Tangku (mile 114); thence NE. to Chinwangtao (mile 256), Chinchowfu (mile 376), Sinminfu (mile 486); and thence SE. to Mukden (mile 520). Except for short distances at Tientsin and Tangku the line is single. The gauge is standard; there are no tunnels; bridges are numerous, the principal being over the Lan Ho, the Ta-ling Ho, and the Liao Ho.

Branches.—(a) **Kowpangtze-Newchwang**, 57 miles, completed in 1900.

(b) **Lienshan-Hulutao Harbour**, 7½ miles.

(c) **Peking-Tungchow**, 15 miles.

Projects and extensions.—**Chinchowfu-Aigun.** In 1910 a preliminary agreement was concluded with a British and

American syndicate for the construction of a line about 750 miles long from Chinchowfu north to Taonanfu, and thence, crossing the Chinese Eastern Railway near Tsitsihar, to Aigun on the Amur. Objections were raised to this project by Russia and Japan.

(b) **Chinchowfu-Chengtehfu** (Jehol), about 240 miles. A survey has been made. The line would pass through Chaoyangfu and Pingchüan.

(c) **Chinchowfu-Dolon-nor**. This would follow the route of (b) as far as Chaoyangfu, and thence it would continue NW. through Chihfeng to Dolon-nor, on the fringe of Mongolia.

(d) **Peking-Chengtehfu** (Jehol). Construction was started in June 1916.

(2) The **Peking-Kalgan-Suiyüan Railway** is the first line financed, built and operated by Chinese without foreign assistance. It starts from Fengtai (Peking-Mukden line) and runs NW. through the Nankow pass to Kalgan (mile 124), thence SW. to Tatungfu (mile 238), and N. to Fengchen (mile 265). The rest of the line is under construction and should be finished in 1918. The total length will be about 344 miles. The track is single and of standard gauge. There are four tunnels in the Nankow section, and a very sharp gradient.

Branch.—**Hsi-chih-mên** (Peking) to **Mentowkow**, a colliery line of 16 miles.

Projects and extensions.—(a) A **Trans-Mongolian** line is contemplated to cross the Gobi from Suiyüan (Kweihwating) to Urga (about 800 miles from Kalgan) and Kiachta (about 1,000 miles), and thence to some point on the Trans-Siberian railway. Such a line would reduce the journey from Europe to Peking by two or three days.

(b) **Kalgan-Dolon-nor**. Approximate length 200 miles.

(c) **Suiyüan-Paotowchen**, about 110 miles, to connect the Peking-Kalgan Railway with the Yellow River.

III. RAILWAYS NORTH OF THE YANGTSE

- (1) THE PEKING-HANKOW (Ching-Han) RAILWAY.
- (2) THE TIENTSIN-PUKOW (Tsin-Pu or Ching-Pu) RAILWAY.
- (3) THE TSINGTAU-TSINAN (Kiao-Tsi or Shantung) RAILWAY.
- (4) THE LANCHOW-TO-THE-SEA (Lung-Hai or Lung-Tsin-Yü-Hai) RAILWAY.
- (5) THE HANKOW-SZECHWAN (Ch'uan-Han) RAILWAY.
- (6) THE PUKOW-SINYANGCHOW (Pu-Hsin) RAILWAY.

(1) **The Peking-Hankow Railway.**—This line was constructed by a Belgian group, assisted by French capital. It was opened to traffic in 1905, redeemed and taken over by the Chinese Government in 1909. It is 753 miles long, and single-tracked, but the earthwork and bridges are wide enough to take a double track in two sections, viz. the first 90 miles from Peking and the last 20 before Hankow. Standard gauge. There are 2 tunnels and several bridges. The most important bridge, over the Yellow River, is 3,300 yards long.

At Peking connexion is made with the Peking-Mukden line.

Branches.—(a) **Chengtingfu-Taiyüanfu (Cheng-Tai) Railway.** This is a metre-gauge line of 151 miles, from Shih-chia-chuang (9 miles S. of Chengtingfu) westward to Taiyüanfu in Shansi. The country is mountainous and there are 19 tunnels. From Yütze on this line SW. to Pingyaohsien a railway was under construction, but as early as 1912 the work was abandoned.

(b) **Taokow-Tsinghwachen (Tao-Ch'ing) Railway.** A standard-gauge line of 96 miles, with branch lines of 7 miles, built by British capital. It was opened in 1903 and made over to the Chinese Government in 1905. It crosses the Peking-Hankow Railway at Sinsiang (mile 381 from Peking). Chiefly used for the transport of coal from the Peking Syndicate collieries.

(c) **Kaopeitien-Liangkochwang** (known as the Sin-Y or Hsi-ling branch) is a metre-gauge line of 26 miles to the Western Tombs of the Manchu dynasty.

(d) **Liangsiang-Toli**, a standard-gauge colliery line of 12 miles, branching westward at mile 19.

(e) **Liuliho-Chowkowitz**, a standard-gauge colliery line of 10 miles, branching westward at mile 31.

(f) **Kaoyih sien-Linchenghsien**, a standard-gauge colliery line of 10 miles, branching westward at mile 202.

(2) **The Tientsin-Pukow Railway** was constructed with British and German capital. The northern section from Tientsin to the Kiangsu border was undertaken by Germany; thence to the Yangtse by the British. The line was opened to through traffic in 1912. It is now under Chinese management.

The line is 628 miles long, standard gauge, and single-tracked except near the Yangtse terminus, where it is double. There are no tunnels, but several important bridges, notably those over the Yellow and Huai rivers.

At Peking the railway links up with the Peking-Mukden line; at Pukow a railway ferry makes connexion with the Shanghai-Nanking system; at Tsinan the Shantung Railway connects; and at Süchowfu the Lanchow-to-the-Sea main line.

Branches.—The following branches, all of standard gauge, are in operation:

(a) **Lokow-Huang-t'ai-chiao** (on the Yellow River) is $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles long and leaves the main line at mile 214 from Tientsin.

(b) **Yenchowfu-Tsining**, 20 miles, leaves the main line at mile 315.

(c) **Lincheng-Tsaochwang-Taierhchwang**. A colliery line of 19 miles leaves the main line at mile 374 to Tsaochwang, and thence another of 26 miles goes to Taierhchwang on the Grand Canal.

(3) **The Tsingtau-Tsinan Railway** was constructed under the conditions of the lease of Kiaochow to Germany. It was completed in 1904 and operated by a German company until the outbreak of the Great War (1914), when it passed under Japanese control. It is 256 miles long, standard gauge, has no tunnels and no large bridges.

Branches.—(a) The **Poshan** colliery line of 27 miles leaves the main line at Changtien.

(b) **Lungkow-Tsimo** is a military line built by the Japanese during the siege of Tsingtau. It runs almost exactly N. to S., and is about 100 miles in length.

Projects and extensions.—In 1913, by agreement with Germany, the latter was to construct two lines with the object of diverting to Tsingtau traffic which would normally go to the Yangtse or to Tientsin. These were :

(a) **Kaomi-Ichowfu-Hanchwang**, a line of 220 miles, which would link up Tsingtau with Süchowfu, the present terminus of the Lanchow-to-the-Sea Railway; and

(b) **Tsinan-Luanfu**, a westward line to connect with the Peking-Hankow Railway.

(c) **Chefoo-Weihsien**. This is a scheme to secure railway communications for the port of Chefoo. The line would be about 170 miles long.

(d) **Tehchow-Chengtingfu**, a line of 110 miles, to connect the Tientsin-Pukow and Peking-Hankow systems.

(4) **The Lanchow-to-the-Sea Railway** is intended to run from Haichow in North Kiangsu, or a port on the Yangtse, through Süchowfu, Kaifeng, Honanfu, and Sianfu to Lanchowfu in Kansuh province. It is being constructed in sections, of which the first, from Kaifeng to Honanfu, known as the Pien-Lo Railway, was completed and opened to traffic in 1909. Other portions have been undertaken by local Chinese companies, but all have been merged in a large scheme which has been the subject of a financial agreement concluded by the Chinese Government with a Belgian company in 1912. This has been brought practically to a standstill by the outbreak of the Great War, though work is still being continued by Chinese companies with limited resources. In 1916 it was completed from Süchowfu in the east to Kwanyintang (beyond Mienchih) in the west, about 350 miles. Westward the line is under construction as far as Sianfu, but it is not anticipated that the long tunnels beyond Kwanyintang will be completed before 1918. The length

from Süchowfu to Lanchowfu is about 900 miles. Eastward of Süchowfu there is completed a short section of $9\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Tsingkiangpu to Yangchwang.

A project has been mooted to continue this trunk line 1,900 miles westward from Lanchowfu, through Hami and Kuldja, to connect with the Trans-Siberian Railway.

(5) **The Hankow-Szechwan Railway**, at the outbreak of the war in 1914, was being financed by American, French, and German groups, each nationality being responsible for a certain section of the line. The German section was from Hankow to Ichang, the American from Ichang to Chungking, and the French from Chungking to Chengtu.

The survey of 71 miles of the German section, from Hankow to Tsaoshih, was completed in October 1914, and work was commenced in December 1914, but abandoned shortly afterwards.

The American section—originally from Ichang to Kweichowfu, subsequently extended to Chungking—is very difficult from an engineering point of view. The construction was at first attempted by a Chinese company which made little progress. The American engineers made a new survey in 1913-14, and the estimated length of the section is now 404 miles. Apart from numerous bridges, the chief difficulty will be a tunnel of 17,500 ft. near the village of Nanto: the E. portal of the tunnel will be 13 miles W. of Ichang. Farther west the line will pass through Kweichowfu, Siaokiang, and Changshow Sze, following in the main the N. bank of the Yangtse. At the end of 1915 work was suspended, the available capital being devoted to the construction of the N. section of the Canton-Hankow Railway.

A final survey has not yet been made of the French section, which was intended to be part of a large Franco-Belgian scheme to link up Indo-China with North China and Siberia.

The gauge is the standard 4 ft. $8\frac{1}{2}$ in., but the French wish to introduce the metre gauge on their section to conform with the gauge of the Indo-China and Yunnan railways.

Project.—In 1913 a concession was obtained by a Franco-Belgian syndicate for the construction of a railway northward

from **Chengtū** to **Tatungfu** on the Peking-Kalgan-Suiyūan Railway, through Sianfu and Tungkwansien, a total length of 900 miles. No details are settled.

(6) **The Pukow-Sinyangchow Railway.** The agreement for the construction of this line was concluded in 1913 by the Chinese Government with a British company, and a final survey was made in 1914. About 9 miles of embankment had been completed when the Great War broke out and caused a suspension of work.

The line will leave the Tientsin-Pukow Railway at Wuyi (Anhwei), and pass westward through Lüchowfu (mile 76), Liuchow (mile 123), Kwangchow (mile 219), to Sinyangchow on the Peking-Hankow line. The total length is 285 miles. There will be no tunnels, but several bridges, the longest at Liuchow over the Pi Ho.

A branch line is contemplated from Lüchowfu to Chengyangkwan on the Huai River, approximately 62 miles long.

IV. RAILWAYS SOUTH OF THE YANGTSE

- (1) SHANGHAI—NANKING (Hu-Ning) RAILWAY.
- (2) NANKING—CHANGSHA (Ning-Hsiang) RAILWAY.
- (3) SHANGHAI—HANGCHOW—NINGPO (Hu-Hang-Yung) RAILWAY.
- (4) CANTON—HANKOW (Yüeh-Han) RAILWAY.
- (5) CANTON—KOWLOON (Kwang-Kow) RAILWAY.
- (6) SHASI—SINGYI RAILWAY.
- (7) KIUKIANG—NANCHANG (Nan-Hsün) RAILWAY.
- (8) TAYEH RAILWAY.
- (9) YUNNAN (Tien-Yüeh) RAILWAY.
- (10) BHAMO—TENGYUEH—YÜNNANFU RAILWAY.
- (11) YAMCHOW—YÜNNANFU RAILWAY.
- (12) SUNNING RAILWAY.
- (13) SWATOW—CHAOCHOWFU (Chao-Shan) RAILWAY.
- (14) AMOY—CHANGCHOWFU (Chang-Hsia) RAILWAY.

(1) **The Shanghai-Nanking Railway** was built by a British company (British and Chinese Corporation), and opened to

traffic in 1908. It is 193 miles long, of standard gauge, single throughout, but on the section between Shanghai and Soochow (53 miles) the earthwork and bridges have been made to take a double line. There is a short tunnel near Chinkiang. Bridges are numerous, but none of great length. The line is now managed by the Chinese Government.

Branches.—(a) **Shanghai-Woosung (Sung-Hu) Railway**, 10 miles long, standard gauge, connects Shanghai North station with Woosung.

(b) **Nanking City (Kiang-Ning) Railway**, 8 miles long, standard gauge, connects Hsia-kuan, the river port, with the centre of the city.

(2) **Nanking-Changsha Railway**. An agreement for the construction of this railway was concluded in 1914 by the Chinese Government with the British company which built the Shanghai-Nanking Railway, and a preliminary survey was made in that year. Approximate length of the line, 643 miles. It will probably pass through Ningkwofu, Hweichow, and Wuyüan in Anhwei; Loping, Nanchang, Changshu, and Pingsiang in Kiangsi; and thence along the existing colliery line to Chuchow and Changsha in Hunan.

There is an alternative proposal to run the line from Nanchang to Hangchow or Kashing, instead of Nanking.

(3) **Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo Railway**. Though the concession for this was originally granted to the British company above-mentioned (British and Chinese Corporation), construction was undertaken by Chinese provincial companies. In 1914 it was taken over by the Chinese Government and brought under the same management as the Shanghai-Nanking line. When completed it will be 220-30 miles long, but in 1916 only the section from Shanghai to Cha-k'ou (Zah-kou) on the Ch'ien-t'ang River, 117 miles, and 53 miles of the Ningpo section were in working order.

Branches.—(a) **Kung-ch'ên-ch'iao (Kon-zen-chiao)** branch connects the foreign settlement on the banks of the Grand Canal with the main line. Distance $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles, standard gauge.

(b) **Shanghai Junction (Loop) Line** connects the termini

of the Shanghai-Nanking and Shanghai-Hangchow Railways. Total length about $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

(4) **Canton-Hankow Railway.** This was originally an American concession, but it was redeemed in 1905 by the Chinese Government. Eventually the construction of the section from Canton to the border of Kwangtung was undertaken by the Chinese themselves, the rest of the line being built with British capital. In 1915 this southern (Kwangtung) section was opened to traffic as far as Shiuchow, 140 miles from Canton, and by the end of 1916 another 15 miles was completed. Farther north the country is more difficult, and construction has for the present been suspended.

On the northern (Hupeh and Hunan) section considerable progress has been made, and the line is practically finished from Wuchang opposite Hankow, via Yochow (mile 140), to Changsha (mile 225). The line is single throughout and of standard gauge.

Branches.—(a) **Canton-Samshui Railway** was begun in 1902 under the original Canton-Hankow concession. It starts at Shekwaitong opposite Canton, on the right bank of the river, and runs to Fatshan (mile 10) and to Samshui, $30\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The line is double from Canton to Fatshan, single the rest of the way. Standard gauge.

There is a scheme to extend this railway along the West River to Wuchow, Sünchow, and Nanning.

(b) **Pingsiang (Chu-Ping) Colliery Line** connects the coal mines near Pingsiang Ki with Chuchow Hun. It was built by an American engineer, is 60 miles long, and of standard gauge. It will ultimately be absorbed by or linked up with the Nanking-Changsha Railway (see above).

Project.—**Hengchowfu-Nanning Railway** is to run from Hengchowfu (or some other station on the Canton-Hankow line) SW. to Kweilin, Liuchowfu, and Nanning. A small section from Chüanchow to Kweilin, 80 miles, was apparently surveyed in 1909.

(5) **Canton-Kowloon (Kwang-Kow) Railway** was built by a British company (British and Chinese Corporation) and opened to traffic in 1911. The last $22\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Shumchün

to Kowloon lie in British leased territory. The whole line is 112 miles, of standard gauge and single-tracked.

A loop line connecting the termini of the Canton-Kowloon and the Canton-Hankow lines is contemplated. The distance between the two stations, 5 or 6 miles, has been surveyed, but a final agreement has not yet (1917) been reached.

Branches.—Three light railways (2-foot gauge) lead from the main line. They are :

- (a) **Namkong-Lokong**, $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles.
- (b) **Sintsün-Tsengshingsien**, 18 miles.
- (c) **Fanling-Shatowkok**, $7\frac{1}{4}$ miles. This lies in British territory.

Project.—In 1902 a concession was apparently given to Portugal for the construction of a railway from **Canton** to **Macao**, but the syndicate concerned failed to raise the necessary funds. A fresh scheme was elaborated by the Chinese in 1913.

(6) **Shasi-Singyi Railway**. In 1914 a final agreement was concluded between the Chinese Government and Messrs. Pauling & Co. Ltd. (a British firm) for the construction of a railway from a point on the Yangtse opposite Shasi via Changteh, Yüanchow and Kweiyang to Singyi in Kweichow province, together with a branch line from Changteh to Changsha, on the Canton Hankow Railway, a total length of 750 miles. At Changsha it will also connect with the Nanking-Changsha line, and at Singyi it will ultimately link up with the projected French railway from Yamchow to Yünnanfu.

(7) **Kiukiang-Nanchang** (Nan-Hsün or Kiangsi) **Railway** was undertaken by the Chinese with Japanese engineers. The original scheme was to connect Kiukiang with the Canton-Hankow line at Shiuchow, but this is not likely to be carried out. The section as far as Nanchang was opened in 1915. The line is standard gauge and single-tracked, and about 80 miles long. From Kiukiang it runs S. almost parallel with the W. bank of the P'o-yang Lake. At Nanchang it will connect with the Nanking-Changsha line.

There is a Japanese project to connect **Foochow** with Nanchang and the Yangtse, by a railway up the Min valley.

(8) **Tayeh Railway** is a short line of 17 miles connecting Shihhwei-yao on the S. bank of the Yangtse with the iron mines of T'ieh Shan. It is of standard gauge.

(9) **Yunnan (Tien-Yüeh) Railway** is a continuation of the French colonial railway from Hanoi to Laokay on the Tonkin border. Under a concession obtained from the Chinese Government this line has been carried from Hokow, opposite Laokay and the first town in Chinese territory, through Mengtsz to Yünnanfu. From the border to Yünnanfu the line is 288 miles long. The gauge is the French colonial or metre gauge.

Branch.—**Mengtsz-Kokiuchang**, 34 miles, to connect with the tin mines at the latter place. It was under construction in 1914.

Projects and extensions.—(a) **Yünnanfu-Suifu** (on the Yangtse). The contract for this was signed in 1914.

(b) **Langson-Lungchow**. A definite concession has been obtained for the extension of the Hanoi-Langson line beyond Dongdang as far as Lungchow. The objective is doubtless Nanning.

(10) **Bhamo-Tengyueh-Yünnanfu Railway**. By the Burmah Convention of 1897 China agreed 'hereafter to consider whether the conditions of trade justify the construction of railways in Yunnan, and in the event of their construction, to connect them with the Burmese lines'. The route from Bhamo to Tengyueh, 122 miles, has already been surveyed. This portion of the line would be, comparatively speaking, an easy and cheap undertaking, but between Tengyueh and Yünnanfu, via Talifu, the watersheds separating the Shweli, Salween and Mekong rivers have to be passed, involving great engineering difficulties.

Messrs. Pauling & Co. were given an agreement for the construction of the section from Talifu to Yünnanfu at the same time as the agreement mentioned under (6) above, Shasi and Singyi Railway.

(11) **Yamchow-Yünnanfu Railway** is the subject of an agreement signed in 1914, with the Banque Industrielle de

China. It provides for a line from Yamchow (Chinchow) on the coast of S. Kuangtung to Nanning, and thence up the Yukiang valley to Poseh and Kützingfu (NE. of Yünnanfu), where it would link up with the Yünnanfu-Suifu line (see above under (a) of (9)). Between Poseh and Kützingfu this line was to pass through the terminus of the Shasi-Singyi line (see above (6)). The section from Poseh to Yünnanfu was surveyed in 1911-12 by a Chinese company.

Project.—**Kwangchowwan-Nanning Railway.** A French scheme to connect Kwangchowwan with Nanning via Limchowfu and Hengchow was discussed in 1904. .

(12) **Sunning Railway** was built by Chinese engineers with Chinese capital. It runs from Towshan, near the port of San-chia-hai (Samkaphoi), NW. to Sunning (mile 20), thence N. to Kungyi (mile 36) on the Sên-ch'èung creek, a large navigable waterway $\frac{1}{4}$ mile wide at the ferry station. It is not bridged, and the crossing is made by train ferries. Beyond the creek the line bends E. to Kongmoon on the West River (mile 64) and thence 3 miles farther to Pakshek and Pakkai (Pei-chieh), 67 miles in all. It is single and of standard gauge. It is being extended to Yeungkong, a distance of 80-90 miles, and construction work was begun in 1917.

(13) **Swatow-Chaochowfu Railway** is a short line built by Japanese engineers with Chinese capital. Total length 27 miles. The track is single, standard gauge.

A scheme for connecting this railway with either the Canton-Kowloon or the Canton-Hankow line has been under consideration.

(14) **Amoy-Changchowfu Railway.** The funds for this line were provided by the Chinese, the construction being under the same direction as the Swatow-Chaochowfu Railway, with which it is ultimately to be connected. In 1916 it was completed from Sung-hsü, opposite Amoy, to the river Kiu-lung, 20 miles. The line is single and of standard gauge. It has been badly laid and is not in good order.

Project.—**Anhai-Chüanchowfu**, a distance of 25 miles. A Japanese scheme to connect these places with a light railway.

CHAPTER XVI

WATERWAYS AND INLAND NAVIGATION

General Survey—Pai Ho—Yellow River—Huai Ho—Yangtse Basin—
Ch'ien-t'ang River—Min River—West River—Canton Delta.

General Survey.—No country in the world is so well watered as China, nor has any other nation developed its inland water communications to the same extent. The vast system of rivers and canals which cover the face of the land is of inestimable value for travellers as well as for the transit of merchandise. As Richthofen says, 'the absence of wagon roads, the scarcity of beasts of burden, the cheap wages, and the little value of time render it possible for the Chinese to apply boat navigation with pecuniary advantage where the difficulties, expenses, and risks would be found too great in Europe.'

Proceeding from north to south, seven important river basins may be distinguished :

(1) The **Pai Ho** (Pei Ho) and its tributaries, which water the east of Shansi, the best part of Chihli, and small portions of Shantung and Honan.

(2) The **Yellow River** system, traversing Kansu, Shensi, West Shansi, North Honan, a narrow strip of Chihli, and Shantung.

(3) The **Huai Ho**, draining the larger portion of Honan and North Anhwei.

(4) The **Yangtse**, which passes through the provinces of Yünnan, Szechwan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Anhwei, and Kiangsu. Its tributaries also extend into Kansu, Shensi, and Honan in the north, besides watering the northern half of Kweichow and the whole of Hunan and Kiangsi.

(5) The **Ch'ien-t'ang** and (6) **Min** Rivers, which drain the greater part of Chekiang and Fukien respectively.

(7) The **West River** system, which comprises East Yünnan, South Kweichow, practically the whole of Kwangsi, and by far the largest and richest part of Kwangtung. To these must be added the partly natural, partly artificial waterway of

(8) The **Grand Canal**, which passes through the maritime provinces of Chihli, Shantung, Kiangsu, and Chekiang, thus serving as a link between the basins of the Pai Ho, Yellow River, Huai, Yangtse, and Ch'ien-t'ang.

These systems vary greatly in size and importance. The following table,¹ giving the mileage of the navigable rivers and canals in China Proper, serves to show the immense preponderance of the Yangtse Basin. If waterways navigable for small craft only were included, the total mileage would certainly be much increased. The West River Basin easily occupies the second place; for the Yellow River, in spite of its great length and volume, has comparatively little value as a navigable stream.

<i>Navigable Rivers.</i>	<i>Navigable for Steamers.</i>	<i>Navigable for Steam- launches only.</i>	<i>Navigable for Junks only.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
	<i>miles.</i>	<i>miles.</i>	<i>miles.</i>	<i>miles.</i>
The Yangtse	1,400	300	200	1,900
Its tributaries in Szechwan	—	217	1,402	1,619
" " Hupeh	—	500	940	1,440
" " Hunan	275	37	390	702
" " Kiangsi	260	160	1,712	2,132
" " Anhwei	—	540	482	1,022
" " Kiangsu	13	1,001	363	1,377
Total for Yangtse Basin	1,948	2,755	5,489	10,192
Rivers in Chekiang	33	167	382	582
" " Fukien	25	52	502	579
" " Kwangtung and				
Kwangsi	353	1,415	1,461	3,229
" " Shantung	33	127	270	430
" " Chihli	37	195	1,059	1,291
The Yellow River	—	—	1,200	1,200
Total for all Rivers	2,429	4,711	10,363	17,503

¹ From the Chinese Annual for 1912, published by the *Tō-a Dōbun Kuai*.

The province of Chihli is well irrigated by a number of rivers flowing into the gulf of the same name. The **Lan Ho**, which traverses its northern parts, is not much used by junks, which cannot get up from the sea unless the river is in flood ; but higher up, small boats ascend the stream as far as Lan-ho-k'ou, 3 or 4 miles from Jehol.

The Pai Ho.—Tientsin, the great entrepôt for commerce in North China, lies at the confluence of several large rivers or canals. The **Pai Ho**, which is regarded as the main branch, is connected with Peking by a canal, 15 miles long, at Tungchow Chi. The distance by water from this city to Tientsin is $92\frac{1}{2}$ miles. Here the Pai Ho attains a width of 300 yds., and a wharf nearly 2 miles long affords steamers and junks every facility for coming alongside. The **Hai Ho**, as the lower course of the Pai Ho is called, is navigable by sea-going steamers, although the sand bar at its mouth renders the passage difficult. Once the bar is crossed, however, there is plenty of water all the way to Tientsin, a distance of some 40 miles. Numerous steam-launches, tugs, and lighters ply between the Taku anchorage and the ports on the Hai Ho.

The **Hun Ho** and the **Hu-t'o Ho** (or Hsi Ho), which join the Pai Ho a little above Tientsin, are large rivers, but hardly navigable except for a short distance near their mouths. The **Ta-ch'ing Ho**, on the other hand, which flows into the Hu-t'o Ho, forms with its tributaries a useful and fairly extensive system of waterways between these two rivers. Junks ascend the main stream to Paotingfu ($84\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Tientsin) at all seasons of the year.

The **Grand Canal**, which in the province of Chihli has a minimum depth of 6 ft., also meets the Pai Ho at Tientsin, and is an important line of communication. Between the Yellow River and Lintsingchow the bed of the canal is dry during the greater part of the year ; but from the latter place onward it follows the winding course of the **Wei Ho**, which has been embanked, and becomes wide and deep enough for shallow draught launches after Tehchow. The Wei Ho connects Tientsin by water with the city of Weihwei in Honan.

The **Pei-t'ang Ho**, which flows into the Gulf of Chihli a few miles north of the Pai Ho, feeds a network of canals extending over a considerable area. The Lutai Canal, or rather the valuable part of it, lies between Sükochwang and the Pei-t'ang Ho, being also continued to the Pai Ho, which it joins just above Tientsin. The supply of water is regulated by lock gates. Much of the country lying between Peking and the coast is liable to be flooded in summer, owing to the fact that the rivers are in many places above the level of the plain.

All the year round, except during the frozen months (middle of December to middle of March), the above-mentioned waterways are busily thronged with junks of some 20 different types. The majority are flat-bottomed, with one mast, and capable of carrying 60 tons of cargo, but there are also sea-going vessels with two or three masts, of more than twice that capacity.

The Yellow River.—The **Huang Ho**, or Yellow River, enters Kansu at an altitude of 8,200 ft., and leaves the province at about 3,300 ft. above sea-level. Though it receives two large tributaries, it does not become navigable except for rafts until after Chungweihsien. In its middle course, where it forms the boundary between Shensi and Shansi, it again flows too impetuously for navigation, except in certain places, as from Puchowfu to Tungkwanting. The **Fên Ho**, the chief river of Shansi, comes in on its left, and the **Wei Ho**¹ on the right. The Wei Ho runs through the loess plateau of the north in deeply cut channels, and is not navigable until it reaches Hingping. Only boats of shallow draught ply on its waters, for though it becomes fairly wide as it approaches the Huang Ho, it never runs deep. Its chief affluent, the **Ching Ho**, waters the whole north-eastern part of Kansu.

Throughout its lower course, when traversing the plains of Honan and Shantung, the Yellow River receives no important tributary, nor is it easily navigable itself except in short stretches. The mud and sand carried down by its current

¹ Written with a different character from the Wei that flows into the Grand Canal.

have raised the bed of the river several yards above the level of the surrounding country, so that it has to be embanked. Prior to 1851, in which year the dikes gave way to the NE. of Kaifeng, it ran south of the Shantung promontory. After considerable variations it finally abandoned its old bed and followed that of the Chi Ho, a small river flowing into the Gulf of Chihli. Its turbulence and sudden diversions account for the fact that neither along its middle nor its lower course is any important city built on its banks. The normal flow of the Yellow River has been reckoned at a little over 4,000 cubic yards per second near Tsinan, but it is quite three times as great as this in the flood season. The **Hsiao-ch'ing Ho**, a canal which originally formed the lower course of the Chi Ho, connects Tsinan with the sea, and is the natural outlet for exports from Shantung to Chihli, Manchuria, and the north generally. The traffic on this canal is enormous, as many as 20,000 junks plying annually between its mouth and Huang-t'ai-ch'iao, the port of Tsinan lying 2 miles NE. of that city.

Navigation on the section of the Grand Canal immediately south of the Yellow River is impracticable in many places, chiefly on account of sand-banks and the lack of a regular supply of water. The **P'ö Ho**, a short waterway joining the Grand Canal at An-shan to the Yellow River at Chiang-chiakou, is largely used for the transportation of goods.

The Huai Ho.—The **Huai Ho** and its tributaries, the largest of which is the Sha Ho, drain the greater portion of Honan and the northern half of Anhwei. It is navigable throughout almost the whole of its course, from Siyangchow to the Hung-tsê Lake, a distance of about 350 miles, and is already a large river when it reaches Anhwei, though it is in this province that it receives its principal affluents. Of these the Sha Ho is a fine stream 150–500 yds. broad, and navigable all the year round from Siangchenghsien in Honan, though the velocity of the current often rises in the wet season to as much as $5\frac{1}{2}$ knots an hour. The Huai itself generally breaks through its embankments in the summer, and floods the

country about Wuhohsien. It is navigated by native craft up to 70 or 80 tons.

The **Hung-tsê Lake** is one of the four largest lakes in China, being 45 miles long by 20 miles wide in its eastern part. The depth varies from 2 to 5 ft., in spite of which it is crossed by junks in every direction, several channels connecting it with the Grand Canal and with the Kaoyu Lake. But for its shallowness light draught steamers and gunboats could sail up the Huai as far as Chengyangkwan in western Anhwei, and even beyond.

Besides the Sha Ho, which is one of the main lines of communication between Honan, the Yangtse, and Shanghai, two of the tributaries of the Huai are important waterways: the **Kuo Ho** and the **Pi Ho**, which are navigable up to An-lu (10 miles above Pochow An) and Liuanchow respectively.

The Grand Canal between the Yellow River and Tsing-kiangpu is shallow, much interrupted by locks, and therefore little used, but between the latter place and the Yangtse it is fed by a number of large lakes on either side, and becomes a great highway of communication. Several Chinese and Japanese companies have launches plying between Tsing-kiangpu, Yangchow, Soochow, and other places in Kiangsu, which province—especially between Yangchow and the sea, and in the neighbourhood of Shanghai—is a regular network of canals running in every direction.¹

The Yangtse Basin.—The **Yangtse** is usually set down as about 3,200 miles long, though some writers make it as much as 3,500 miles, the difference being due largely to a lack of accurate knowledge concerning the river's upper course. Rising in Tibet, this great waterway divides China into two almost equal halves, with eight provinces on either side, whilst Anhwei and Kiangsu are bisected by it. The Yangtse Basin covers an area of 700,000 sq. miles, with a population of some 200 millions, and is remarkable for its immense natural wealth and the variety of its products. The river is

¹ For the Grand Canal and other waterways of Kiangsu see the Admiralty Handbook of China, Vol. II, Kiangsu.

navigable for nearly half its entire course, and the volume of water brought down at its mouth is estimated at 770,000 cubic ft. per second. It is known by a variety of names in different parts of its course, the commonest being Ch'uan Chiang (River of Szechwan), Ta Chiang (Great River), Ch'ang Chiang (Long River), or simply Chiang. The towns on its banks include such important commercial and industrial centres as Tungchow, Kiangyin, Chinkiang, Nanking, Wuhu, Tatung, Anking, Hukow, Kiukiang, Hankow, Hanyang, and Wuchang, Sinti, Shasi, Ichang, Kweichowfu, Wanhsien, Fengtuhsien, Chungking, and Suifu. Three main sections of the river may be distinguished: (1) The torrential section, extending from its source to Pingshan Sze, a little above Suifu (roughly 1,500 miles); (2) the semi-navigable section, from Pingshan to Ichang (700 miles); and (3) the navigable section, from Ichang to the sea (1,000 miles).

When the Yangtse crosses the Szechwan frontier its bed is still at an altitude of 15,700 ft., and it flows swiftly between high mountain barriers throughout most of its course in this province. Before making its final bend to the north it receives its longest tributary on the left, the **Ya-lung Chiang**, torrential like itself. By the time it reaches Pingshan its bed has dropped to only 1,000 ft. above sea-level. From this point on the Yangtse can be used by boats except in the region of the rapids, and it is now augmented by three affluents coming from the interior of Szechwan: (1) The **Min Chiang**, which becomes navigable for small craft as soon as it enters the Chengtu plain, where it splits up into numerous branches and continues its course to the south, and for junks below, Kiatingfu. As a waterway, therefore—to say nothing of its immense service in irrigation—it is far more useful than the main stream above Pingshan. (2) The **Lu Ho** is a somewhat shorter river which is navigable below Kienchownan. (3) The **Chia-ling Chiang**, the longest of the three, rises in Kansu, becomes navigable for small craft at Kwangyüan, for larger junks at Paoning (though navigation is only easy up to Hochow Sze), and ends at Chungking. Its own affluents, the

Fou Ho and the **Ch'ü Ho**, are also fine rivers, navigable for a great distance inland.

These three rivers always have water in abundance, but their current is rather strong, and they are often obstructed by rapids.

The affluents on the south are of less importance; but the **Hêng Chiang** forms the principal water communication between Yünnan and Szechwan, the **Wu** (or **Kung-t'an**) **Chiang** affords access to Kweichow, and a small affluent of the Yüan Chiang is the direct route for all traffic between Szechwan and Hunan.

Between Chungking and Wanhsien the river is 500–650 yds. wide and generally 20–30 ft. deep, and is navigable with comparative ease. But between Wanhsien and Ichang its channel is narrowed down to some 80 yds. and shut in by precipitous mountain walls on both sides. In this section occur the Three Gorges, renowned for their scenery, and numerous rapids render navigation very difficult. Junks have to be hauled painfully upstream by trackers, so that the voyage from Ichang to Chungking may take as much as 50 or 60 days. A service of three steamers was inaugurated on this route in July 1914, each making two trips a month. They take one week going up, and three days coming down. At Ichang, though nearly a thousand miles from the mouth, the bed of the river is only 130 ft. above sea-level, and the volume of water there is 244 times that of the Thames at London Bridge.

The Yangtse now enters the lowlands, and meanders through the extensive alluvial plain of Hupeh. During the remainder of its course it is fringed by a number of lakes, mostly large and shallow, which play the part of reservoirs; in summer, that is to say, when the river is exceptionally high, they absorb its surplus waters, whereas in winter they serve to feed the river and keep it at a comparatively high level. It is partly owing to these lakes, therefore, that the inundations of the Yangtse are less sudden and disastrous than those caused by the Yellow River, which has no similar system of reservoirs.

The largest of these lakes is the **Tung-t'ing**, which is 75 miles long by 50 miles broad. In summer its area is larger, but in winter it becomes little more than a marsh, through which several streams flow. It is connected with the Yangtse by a short waterway at Yochow and a number of other canals, and is the centre of a very active movement of junks. The principal lines of water communication are: (1) to Canton by the **Hsiang River**, which is connected with the Kuei River in Kwangsi by a small canal with lock gates. Traders often prefer to branch off by the **Lei River** at Hengchowfu, which takes them to the Chê-ling Pass leading into Kwangtung. Three steamship companies have opened regular services between Hankow and Changsha, and steam-launches run up the Hsiang River to Siangtan. (2) Along the **Yüan River** to Changteh, and as far as Chenyüan in Kweichow, 423 miles above that city. (3) From Changteh to Shasi on the Yangtse via Tsingshih, the port of Lichow. A canal navigable for junks of all sizes also goes from Owchihkow, 60 miles below Shasi, to Hwajung on the N. side of the Tung-t'ing Lake. (4) To the important district of Paoking by the **Tzû River**, though owing to rapids this is not much used as a trade route beyond Yiyang. On the whole, considering its inland position, the province of Hunan is remarkably well provided with serviceable waterways.

The next large affluent of the Yangtse is the **Han Shui**, a magnificent river which is now navigated by small steamers as far north as Siangyangfu (300 miles from Hankow), and during the summer freshets by junks and small craft up to Hanchungfu in W. Shensi, 600 miles farther. One of its affluents, the **Tan Chiang**, gives access to the ancient capital Sianfu. Throughout Shensi the Han is obstructed by rapids, and becomes navigable with safety only at Laohokow, where it widens out to 850 yds. Farther on it narrows again, and at its mouth, where the three cities of Hankow, Hanyang, and Wuchang are situated, has a width of only 200 ft. in the lower-water season. Small river steamers are run by two Chinese companies between Hankow and Sientaochen; in

winter they can only get up as far as Tsaitien. The series of lakes between the Han and the Yangtse are connected by a network of canals, much frequented by small craft. The junks which engage in traffic with Hankow as their base must total at least 25,000. Immense numbers of them are always to be found moored at the mouth of the Han Shui, where they extend for 5 miles along both banks. Six steamship lines, native and foreign, are maintained between Hankow and Shanghai, and four between Hankow and Ichang. There is also a cargo service from Hankow to Japan in summer.

The last great affluent reaching the Yangtse (430 miles from the sea) is the **Kan Chiang**, which traverses the province of Kiangsi from S. to N., flows through the P'o-yang Lake, and drains a vast and populous area. It is navigable in summer for almost its entire length of 300 miles to Nananfu, whence goods are carried over the Mei-ling Pass to be reshipped at Namyung on the Pei Chiang, only 150 miles from Canton. Several of the affluents of the Kan Chiang are also important : the **Chang Shui**, forming part of another trade route to Canton ; the **Fu Ho**, notable for its large junks, and the **Kwangsin River**, for its extreme navigability, small boats ascending right up to Yüshan, where there is communication with the basin of the Ch'ien-t'ang River.

The **P'o-yang Lake** is about 90 miles in length and almost 20 miles in breadth, but its condition, like that of the Tung-t'ing Lake, differs widely at various seasons of the year. Though it would appear to be gradually silting up, junks are able to ascend at all seasons to Wucheng Ki, its chief port and commercial city, and several steam-launch companies compete for the passenger traffic between Kiukiang and Nanchang. The lake is surrounded by a vast system of canals which serve the treble purpose of intercommunication, irrigation, and drainage. So numerous are the waterways of Kiangsi, both natural and artificial, that it is possible, at certain seasons of the year, to go from any one large city in the province to any other entirely by water. But towards

the end of summer, the water is drained from the canals on to the rice-fields and their beds often left absolutely dry.

The Yangtse throughout the lower part of its course often exceeds a mile in width, and is from 30 to 60 ft. deep. In the summer season ships drawing 25 ft. can sail up to Hankow, and at all times those of 27 ft. draught can reach Nanking. The **Huang-p'u**, or Shanghai River, is a short but useful waterway. Ships of heavy tonnage can come up to Shanghai, and the river is connected with a perfect maze of canals, small lakes, and lagoons. The largest body of inland water in Kiangsu is the **T'ai Hu**, which has an area of about 1,000 sq. miles, but seldom reaches a depth of more than 5 or 6 ft. Its overflow runs into the Grand Canal, which skirts it on the east, passing through Soochow and terminating at Hangchow, without, however, joining its waters to those of the Ch'ien-t'ang River. In order to continue one's journey to Shaohingfu and Ningpo it is necessary to cross in a ferry-boat to Sihing, and there change again into a canal-boat. Shaohingfu is situated in the midst of a fertile plain intersected by large canals. An important waterway connects this city with a tidal branch of the **Yung Chiang**, or Ningpo River, at Yüyao. The other branch, which meets it at Ningpo, is also navigable, and steam-launches ascend to a point within 5 miles of Fenghwa. Below Ningpo the river is navigable for ships of 17 ft. draught, and the volume of sea-borne traffic is considerable.

The Ch'ien-t'ang River.—Apart from the cultivated plains in the north, and along the south of Hangchow Bay, the whole of Chekiang is mountainous, yet well provided with rivers. The largest of these is the **Ch'ien-t'ang Chiang**, which is navigable in both its upper branches, uniting at Chüchowfu. Two large affluents come in at Lanchi and Yenchow, each of which has many navigable tributaries. On the main river boats of 3 ft. draught can reach Chüchowfu any time between April and November, while launches run regularly between Hangchow and Tunlü. It is a noteworthy fact that every one of the 29 official cities in the Ch'ien-t'ang Basin can be

reached by boat at the high-water season. Owing to the shallowness of Hangchow Bay and the tidal bore which runs up the estuary no steamers enter the mouth of the Ch'ien-t'ang River, though local sea-going junks come in to Hangchow and sometimes ascend to Fuyanghsien. The **Wu Chiang** in the south of the province is a fine river which, despite its rapids, is navigable for fairly large boats up to Chuchow. The treaty-port of Wenchow is situated a few miles above its mouth.

The Min River.—Although the province of Fukien, like its neighbour on the north, is almost wholly mountainous, the inland water communications are wonderfully good. The three principal branches of the **Min River**, which unite at Yenpingfu, are all navigable for a great distance except in the flood season. Thus, on the Kienningfu branch, the largest size of ordinary tea-boats go to the town of that name, while boats of the Kiangsi build go right up to Kienyang Fu, and small ones capable of navigating rapids go up the two forks to Masha and Tsung-an Hsien. On the Pucheng branch to the north similar small boats go up as far as that town, while raft navigation is possible 28½ miles farther still, to Hua-ch'iao. Salt-boats ascend the Wu Chiang to Patu Che, only 12 miles from Hua-ch'iao, so that it is possible to make nearly the whole journey from Wenchow to Foochow by river. On the NW. branch, rising in Kiangsi, boats drawing 2 ft. can ascend to Kwangtseh, some 20 miles beyond Shaowu. This branch is joined by the **Ao Chiang**, which is also navigable nearly up to the border of Kiangsi. Another route through the province can be taken up the **Sha Ch'i** past Yungan to within 40 or 50 miles of Tingchowfu, and thence down the Han river to Swatow. After Yenpingfu the Min River is completely formed, but shoals, rocks, and rapids render it of little use till Shuikow Fu is reached, where fair-sized junks find water enough in every season. Thirty-two miles below Foochow the river flows into the China Sea by two branches, between which lies the island of Wufu. The northern channel is the deeper, and at high tide large steamers come 22 miles up the

river to Pagoda Anchorage. Between this point and Foochow, however, the Min is now scarcely navigable, and is silting up more every year.

The West River.—The **Hsi Chiang**, or West River, divides at Sünchow into two large branches, each of which has some claim to be regarded as the main stream. The northern branch, or **Hung-shui Chiang**, rises in the high table-land of Yünnan, and, after marking the boundary between Kweichow and Kwangsi, traverses the latter province from NW. to SE., becoming navigable a little above Tsienkiang. It receives the **Liu Chiang** on the left, which is navigable for large junks up to Changan, but is specially used for the transport of timber, which is floated down from Hunan and Kweichow. The Hung-shui River passes through poor country and has no towns of much importance on its banks.

The southern branch of the Hsi Chiang, sometimes known as the **Yu Chiang**, also issues from Yünnan. It is navigable for small boats from Poyai on the western frontier of Kwangsi, and for quite large junks only 12 miles farther down, at Poseh. On its right it receives the **Tso (or Li) Chiang**, formed by the confluence of two rivers which come from Tonkin and unite at Lungchow. Both are navigable, though freshets are common. Below Lungchow the country is wild and barren, and the course of the river narrow and winding until its junction with the Yü Chiang, soon after which the busy town of Nanning is reached. The river is now wide and deep until the rapids begin, of which there are a great number, requiring an experienced pilot. Between Kweihsien and Sünchow it is like a canal, but below this its course again becomes tortuous, and rapids are of frequent occurrence. At Wuchow the **Kuei Chiang** comes in on the left, having a width of 330 yds. near its mouth. This river gives access to Hunan by way of Kweilin, the capital of Kwangsi.

Wuchow is the chief river port after Canton, being the head of navigation for steamers and larger boats—up to 400 tons burthen—which are unable to ascend rapids. According to the latest information, however, two sand-banks at a little

distance below the port have seriously interfered with its trade; and, unless dredging operations are undertaken, vessels drawing 7 ft. will have to ship and discharge cargo at a point 23 miles below Wuchow during the low-water season. Floods occur very suddenly on the West River between April and November of each year, and the level of the water often rises more than 60 ft.

When the Hsi Chiang enters Kwangtung it is already a fine large river. At Shiuhing it is over a mile wide. Farther on it passes through a gorge 3 miles long, where it narrows to 270 yds., but widens anew to a breadth of one mile. The **Pei Chiang** (North River), which comes in on the left at Samshui, 110 miles below Wuchow, is navigable, though with some difficulty, from Namyung. At Shiuchow, where the **Wu Shui** flows in from S. Hunan, it becomes navigable for large boats, though the summer freshets render its current very violent and hard to ascend. Its principal tributary on the right is the **Linchow River**, navigable up to the town of the same name in the NW. corner of Kwangtung.

The Canton Delta.—At Samshui the Hsi Chiang divides into several branches, and the delta begins. The northern branch, called Chu Chiang, or **Pearl River**, flows past Canton, receives the waters of the **Tung Chiang** (East River) on the left and, passing through the Bocca Tigris (Foomoon), empties itself by a broad estuary into the sea. The Tung Chiang with its tributaries drains the greater part of E. Kwangtung, and is much used for navigation. During the last 70 miles of its course it passes through the large towns of Waichow, Poklo, and Sheklung, and flows through a small delta into the large delta of the Hsi Chiang, which it enters by eight channels, extending from just above Whampoa to just below Taiping Tung.

The southern or main branch of the Hsi Chiang passes the important towns of Kowkong and Kumchuk, and enters the sea to the W. of Macaq. Lying principally between these two branches is an alluvial plain 60 miles long by 20 to 25 miles in breadth, intersected by a maze of waterways,

along which countless boats are constantly plying. The following waterways deserve special mention :

(1) The Sainam Creek, on which are situated the towns of Sainam (the centre of the junk traffic), Tzetung, and Shekwan. This creek passes S. of Fatshan and the waterway leading to the Pearl River. On the right, going down, it connects with

(2) The Laklow Reach, flowing past Kwanshan and Shatow to Laklow ; and on the left with

(3) The Chanchuen Creek, which passes through the town of that name.

(4) The Sailam Channel, which branches to the E. from the main stream just below Kumchuk and enters the estuary of the Pearl River at Wangmoon.

(5) The Kongmoon Creek, which flows past the town of Kongmoon to the sea through the Aimoon Pass, and receives *en route* the waters of the Tamkong from Chikhom and Sunwui.

(6) The Shekki Creek, which leaves the West River just below Kongmoon and divides into two branches, one of which connects with the Sailam Channel, while the other passes the town of Shekki and re-enters the main stream just above Pinglam.

This splendid system of waterways, furnishing as it does direct communication between all the important markets in three great river basins and in the rich Canton delta, renders trade between the various parts of the country both cheap and speedy. It must be added that these natural advantages are somewhat counteracted by the shifting sand-banks which the absence of any system of conservancy has allowed to impede navigation, as well as by the destructive floods which the denudation of the hillsides causes during the heavy summer rains. On the other hand, piracy, which was once so prevalent, has been almost wholly suppressed.

There is an excellent service of steamers between Hongkong, Canton, and Wuchow, run by Chinese, French, and English companies. The trip from Hongkong to Canton (89 miles) occupies 7 to 8 hours, and to Wuchow 48 hours. The port

of Canton could with little expense be adapted for the largest steamers, but the Chinese have increased the natural obstacles by raising artificial barriers intended to block the port. At present Danes Island divides the stream into two channels, of which the Whampoa Channel is not attempted by vessels drawing more than 11 ft., though Whampoa itself (8 miles below Canton) can be reached by vessels of 23 ft. draught, crossing Second Bar at high water. The Blenheim Passage is longer but deeper, but it is inadvisable for vessels of over $17\frac{1}{2}$ ft. draught to attempt the passage of the Tai-shek Barrier even at highwater springs. These two channels meet again at Honam Point opposite Shameen Island.

The journey from Canton to Poseh or Lungchow may take three months by junk, and the return journey 15-20 days. Junks are now regularly towed up the West River by tugs, steam tugs being used on the lower course, and petrol tugs over the middle and upper course. A regular service of launches has been established, running to Sünchow in winter, and during the high-water season as far as Lungchow, Poseh, and Linchowfu. One can get from Wuchow to Nanning by petrol boat in four days, and from Nanning to Poseh in three days.

CHAPTER XVII

POSTS, TELEGRAPHS, AND TELEPHONES

THE POST OFFICE

FROM very early times the Chinese Imperial dispatches were transmitted by a relay system of couriers, known as *I-chan*, forming a kind of special postal service for official use. The people, debarred from using this, found means of sending their letters and parcels through certain forwarding agencies which were organized by the merchant class. In this way a far-reaching and on the whole very reliable system of intercommunication by honges or agencies, known as *Min-chū*, was established throughout the country.

Shortly after 1861, when the foreign ministers had taken up residence at Peking, the Imperial courier system was utilized by the *Tsungli Yamên* (foreign office) to exchange legation and customs mails between Shanghai and Peking; and in the open season the coastal steamer service was employed for the same purpose. This led to the opening of quasi-postal departments at the Custom Houses concerned, and the first step was taken towards a Chinese Imperial Post.

The next stage included the experiment of a Native Post Office alongside the Customs' post in 1878, the establishment of postal couriers between certain selected centres, and the introduction of Customs' postage stamps. In the same year China was formally invited to join the Postal Union, but she preferred to defer this step until her postal arrangements were more mature. The postal idea was backed by the great Viceroy of Chihli, Li Hung-chang, and in spite of the opposition by vested interests in the *I-chan* and *Min-chū* it gradually took a firm hold of the country. Finally in 1896 an Imperial decree ordered an Imperial Post Office for all China to be

modelled on Western lines under the direction of Sir Robert Hart, who now became Inspector-General of Customs and Posts. It was to be conducted by a branch of the Imperial Maritime Customs, and all official mails except those for the NW. provinces were to be carried by it.

In 1910 the *I-chan* were transferred to the Ministry of Posts and Communications, and the conduct of the Post Office was transferred to this same ministry in May 1911, a special department known as Directorate-General of Posts being established.

In 1914 China formally entered the Universal Postal Union, and on September 1st of that year the regulations of the Rome Convention became operative in China, and China signified her adherence to the Parcels Post Convention.

On the declaration of the Republic in 1911 the post office took up a position of provisional neutrality; but such was the growth of public confidence in its organization that it came through the troublous time of revolution and insurrection with increased prestige. Meanwhile there had been no official interference with the *Min-chü* so long as they conformed to the postal laws, but they are being gradually eliminated by the competition of the official post. Much of their 'clubbed mails' is actually carried by the Imperial Post.

The difficulties encountered by the postal service in China owing to the notoriously bad roads and the limited railway facilities would be hard to overestimate. It makes use of every available means of transport—railways, steamer lines, junks, boats, mounted and foot couriers, carts and wheelbarrows; but by far the largest part of the work is done by the courier lines which now spread their ramifications over the whole of China. Since 1910 day and night services have come into use on most of the important routes; and on the whole there has been very little interruption of communications from bad weather, floods, and brigandage. Indeed this excellently organized service has grown steadily in the popular esteem and bids fair to become part of the life of the nation.

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At the end of 1901 there were 176 postal establishments in China dealing with 10½ million articles. Some idea of the progress since made can be obtained by comparing these figures with the statistics for the Chinese Empire given in the later Post Office Reports :

<i>Communications.</i>		1908.	1915.
Courier lines	about 68,300 miles.		about 136,000 miles.
Native boat lines	" 6,830 "	}	" 21,200 "
Steamboat lines	" 8,000 "		" 6,300 "
Railway lines	" 4,000 "		
<i>General Statistics.</i>		1909.	1915.
Head offices		47	21
First, second, and third class offices and sub-offices		605	1,567
Agencies		3,606	6,923
Articles dealt with	306,000,000		773,183,122
Registered articles	25,598,000		66,601,000
Express letters	908,000		6,290,670
Articles collected from letter-boxes, box offices, and pillar boxes	16,044,000		41,972,700
Letters in native clubbed mails	8,411,000		6,381,500
Parcels	3,280,000		9,209,886
Money orders issued	4,866,000		13,552,200
Money orders cashed	4,843,050		13,469,200

The usual postal facilities are given for letters, postcards, newspapers, printed matter, commercial papers, samples and patterns, registration, parcels, insurance and money orders. There is a *poste restante* at every post office. The system of express letters has been very successful. An extra charge is made for these, but they are handled by a special staff and delivered with greater rapidity than the ordinary mails.

There are post offices in all towns of any importance, and agencies are rapidly increasing in number throughout the empire. Ordinary stamps and postcards are obtainable at the agencies; but, as a rule, neither they nor the less important post offices, which have no money transactions, stock stamps of high value.

The ordinary rates of postage are :

<i>Mail Matter.</i>	<i>Unit of Charge.</i>	<i>Local.</i>	<i>Domestic.</i>	<i>Union. (foreign).</i>
Letters.	Each 20 grm. or fraction thereof.	1 cent.	3 cents.	
	First 20 grm. or fraction thereof.	—	—	10 cents.
	Each successive unit or fraction thereof.	—	—	6 cents.
Postcards.	Single.	1 cent.	1 cent.	4 cents.
	Double (reply paid).	2 cents.	2 cents.	8 cents.
Newspapers.	Singly or in bundles (not exceeding 2 kilos).	$\frac{1}{2}$ cent. per 100 grm.	$\frac{1}{2}$ cent. per 50 grm.	2 cents. per 50 grm.

For special tariffs for particular districts, and for tariff on books, &c., samples, and parcels see *Postal Guide*.

Most of the foreign powers have post offices in Peking and certain treaty-ports.

Great Britain has post offices at Tientsin, Chefoo, Hankow, Shanghai, Ningpo, Foochow, Amoy, Swatow, Canton, Kiungchow, Weihaiwei.

France has post offices at Peking, Tientsin, Chefoo, Chungking, Hankow, Shanghai, Ningpo, Foochow, Amoy, Canton, Pakhoi, Kiungchow, Lungchow, Mengtsz, Yünnanfu.

Russia has post offices at Peking, Tientsin, Chefoo, Hankow, Shanghai, and at numerous places in Manchuria.

Japan has post offices at Amoy, Canton, Changsha, Chefoo, Chinkiang, Foochow, Hangchow, Hankow, Kiukiang, Nanking, Newchwang, Peking, Shanhaikwan, Shasi, Shanghai, Soochow, Swatow, Tientsin, Tangku, and Wuhu; besides those in Manchuria and the leased territory.

Direct communication between London and Peking *via* Siberia began in November 1912. The Tientsin-Pukow railway now links up this system with Nanking and Shanghai.

Letters and postcards from Wenchow northwards for Europe are sent *via* Siberia unless specially marked *via* Suez. For parts south of Wenchow the public may mark letters, &c. *via* Suez or *via* Siberia; otherwise they will be sent by the most direct means available.

TELEGRAPHS

In 1871 the Eastern Extension Telegraph Co. connected Shanghai, Hongkong, and Singapore with Madras and so with Europe ; and since then numerous other lines have been laid by Great Britain, France, Russia, Germany, United States, Japan, and the Great Northern Telegraph Co. of Denmark, connecting the principal ports of China with each other and with the outside world.

The first land-line erected in China was a short line between Shanghai and Woosung built by foreign merchants in 1873. In 1875 Shêng Pao-chêng, Viceroy of Kiangsu, memorialized the throne advising the establishment of telegraphs, in place of the hitherto existing system of beacon signals, for rapid communication. Nothing, however, was done until 1879 when the viceroy, Li Hung-chang, obtained permission for the construction of a land-line between Tientsin and Taku. In the next year he arranged with the Great Northern Telegraph Co. for assistance in constructing a line from Tientsin to Shanghai, which was opened in 1881. Not a little difficulty was at first experienced in preventing the destruction of the lines by ignorant country folk. In 1882 Chinkiang and Nanking were linked up, and subsequently a line was carried along the Yangtse from Shanghai to Hankow. In 1884 Shanghai was joined up with Canton and Tientsin with Peking. In 1887 the Shanghai-Hankow line was extended into the western and south-western provinces. In 1894 lines were opened connecting the principal places in Sinkiang ; and in 1897 the Peking-Kiakhta line across Mongolia opened the fastest route of communication between China and Europe. The chief towns of Manchuria were linked up in 1907.

From 1882 to 1908 all the Chinese land-lines were operated by a Chinese company under Government control ; but in the latter year the Ministry of Communications took over all land-lines from the company and the Provincial Governments.

Telegraph conventions have been made with the four cable companies operating in China, viz. the Great Northern

Telegraph Co. of Denmark, the Eastern Extension, Australasia and China Telegraph Co. (British), the Commercial Pacific Cable Co. (American), and the Deutsch-Niederlandische Telegraphen Gesellschaft (German-Dutch); with Russia and Japan regarding the Manchurian system; with Japan regarding the cable between Dairen and Chefoo; with Germany regarding the German cables connecting Shanghai, Tsingtao, and Chefoo; with India and France regarding the connexion at the Burmese and Indo-Chinese frontiers.

At the end of 1913 the lines in operation throughout China and dependencies had a total length of 38,507 miles, including 1,002 miles of submarine cables and 102 miles of underground lines, with 612 telegraph stations. Fast-working Wheatstone instruments are being introduced all over the country, and schools for telegraphists have been established in several centres.

Length and dates of construction of principal lines :

Shanghai-Tientsin, 1,025 miles (1882); Shanghai-Canton, 1,820 miles (1882); Hankow-Luchow, 1,047 miles (1886); Sianfu-Peking, 964 miles (1890); Peking-Kiakhta, 1,061 miles (1897); Shanghai-Hankow, 873 miles (1884); Hankow-Peking, 974 miles (1910); Kiukiang-Canton, 988 miles (1884).

The rates at the end of 1913 were : .

For telegrams in foreign languages : to places in the same province, 9 cents per word; between any two provinces, 18 cents per word; press telegrams (throughout China) 6 cents per word.

For telegrams in Chinese : to places in the same province, 6 cents per word; between any two provinces, 12 cents per word; press telegrams (throughout China), 3 cents per word.

Foreign telegrams : rate between China and Europe, with exception of Russia and the Caucasus, 3s. 6d. per word; press messages and deferred telegrams to most countries in Europe to be transmitted at half the ordinary rates.

Telegrams in European languages should be written in Roman characters. Those in Chinese are sent in a code composed of Arabic numerals which correspond to Chinese

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characters. A book has been prepared containing about 7,000 characters, each having a corresponding number of four figures.

Wireless

The official list of wireless stations in China contains the following :

<i>Name.</i>	<i>Position (Meridian of Greenwich).</i>	<i>Day Range.</i>	<i>System.</i>	<i>Nature of Service.</i>
<i>Chinese Stations :</i>				
Canton . . .	23° 10' N 113° 20' E	650	Telefunken	Public.
Foochow . . .	26° 07' N 119° 18' E	650	"	"
Kalgan . . .	40° 45' N 115° 20' E	650	"	Official.
Peking . . .	39° 54' N 116° 27' E	650	"	"
Shanghai . . .	31° 15' N 121° 29' E	200	"	Public.
Woosung . . .	31° 20' N 121° 25' E	650	"	"
Wuchang . . .	30° 30' N 114° 23' E	650	"	Official.
<i>French Stations :</i>				
Kwangchowwan .	21° 03' 34" N 110° 27' 45" E	500	French Government	Public and Official.
Shanghai (Sikawei).	31° 11' 32" N 121° 25' 48" E	500	Société Fran- çaise Radio- électrique	Public.
<i>American stations :</i>				
Peking . . .	39° 54' 50" N 116° 30' 20" E	150	U.S. Navy	Official.

The Chinese Government is erecting a chain of wireless stations along the coast of China, and proposes to extend the system to provincial capitals. The systems in use are the Telefunken and Marconi. The former is installed at Shanghai, Hanoi, Hoihow and Süwenyun, Tsingtau, Peking, Kalgan, and Canton, and contracts were made in 1913 for its establishment also at Swatow and Hankow. The coast stations have a day range of 650 to 700 miles, and a night range of about 1,300. Temporary rates for coast stations are 10 cents per word with a minimum charge of \$1.

In addition to the foregoing places, the *China Year-book* for 1916 mentions wireless stations at Hu-mên (Fu-mun) at the entrance of the Canton River, Samshui, Paotingfu, Weihaiwei, Hongkong Dairen, and Port Arthur.

Besides the installation under the Colonial Post Office at Hongkong, there is a naval and military station on Stonecutters' Island.

There is a Marconi installation in the Italian Legation at Peking and in the Italian concession at Tientsin.

TELEPHONES

The first Government telephone was constructed at Canton in 1903 ; and systems have been established in many places since and are under construction in many others. The following towns had exchanges in 1913: Shanghai, Hongkong, Tientsin, Peking, Dairen, Mukden, Hankow, Soochow, Tsingtau, Kiukiang, Sankiaopu, Harbin, Antung, Hangchow, Tsinan, and Taiyüanfu. There are private telephone systems at Hankow, Amoy, and Foochow.

TRANSLITERATION OF PLACE-NAMES

SEVERAL different systems are in current use for the romanization of Chinese. Each foreign country is naturally inclined to transcribe the sounds of the characters in conformity with its own spelling. Thus, the French would have 'tch' where we write 'ch', and 'ch' for our 'sh'. The Morrison system, now almost obsolete, aimed at reproducing Chinese characters in a purely English form of spelling. Owing to our peculiar vowel-sounds, however, this system could hardly be adopted by other than Anglo-Saxon nations. The system of transliteration for Pekingese, known as the Wade orthography after the name of its inventor, may be regarded somewhat in the light of a compromise. In this, broadly speaking, it may be said that the vowels have their ordinary Continental values, while the semi-vowels ('w' and 'y') and the consonants are used more or less as in English. Hence we have *li*, not *le* or *lee*, and *wan* instead of *ouann*. All aspirates are indicated by an inverted comma: thus, *t'a*, pagoda, is distinguished from *ta*, great.

In the list of place-names compiled by the Chinese Post Office, which is likely to become the standard spelling, the local pronunciation is generally followed. For the sake of simplicity aspirates are omitted and no hyphens are used between the syllables. Names with the same sound are distinguished by adding either the province or the official status of the town. Thus, Taichow Ku (Kiangsu) is distinguished from Taichow Sha (Shansi) and Taichowfu in Chekiang; Chüchow Sung (Shantung) from Chüchowfu in Chekiang; and Taiping An (Anhwei) from numerous other towns of the same name, including Taipinghsien, also in Anhwei. According to this system the names of places at which different dialects are spoken may be found written in totally

different ways although the characters are identical: e. g. 'Hengkiang' in Kiangsi is the same in Chinese as 'Wong-kong' in Kwangtung.

In the present volume all place-names occurring in the Postal Guide have been written in the form there given. With regard to other names the Wade orthography has been adopted as far as possible; that is to say, wherever the Chinese characters are known, or the Wade form is obtainable from some trustworthy source. In these names the syllables are divided by hyphens.

NOTE

THERE are a number of dialects spoken along the coasts of South and Central China, and penetrating only a short distance inland ; they differ from one another in much the same way as the Romance languages of Southern Europe. Beginning from the north these dialects may be summarized under the districts

Shanghai,
Ningpo,
Wênchow,
Foochow,
Amoy-Swatow,
Cantonese and Hakka.

Throughout China north of the Yangtse and in all the hinterland of South China, that is to say in four-fifths of the country, the great dialect known as *kuan-hua* (official language) or 'mandarin' is the current speech. There are a number of sub-dialects : Pekingese having been the accredited court speech of the Manchu dynasty became the standard form.

Of the coast dialects Shanghai and Cantonese have been chosen as the two most likely to be useful to British officers, and the standard Pekingese has been naturally selected to represent the mandarin section. Any one who can make himself understood easily in Pekingese has little difficulty in communicating with persons speaking the other sub-dialects.

VOCABULARIES

Transliterations, tone marks, and pronunciation of the three dialects—Mandarin, Shanghai, and Cantonese.

CHINESE being a non-alphabetic language the sounds of the characters have to be expressed by some system of transliteration which shall be intelligible to Europeans. Unfortunately, it has not been found possible to devise a uniform system that will serve for a number of different dialects. Each of the three dialects, therefore, included in the following vocabulary has been transcribed in the manner laid down by authorities in those dialects.

I. The Wade orthography, which has been adopted for the **Mandarin** dialect, may be said roughly to retain the English consonantal values combined with the ordinary Italian pronunciation of the vowels. The use of accents and diacritical marks is reduced to a minimum.

Too much importance can hardly be attached to the correct use of aspirates, marked by inverted commas (‘), and the same may be said of the four ‘tones’, keys in which the voice is pitched, which serve to differentiate words of the same sound. These are denoted by their respective numbers, placed at the right-hand top corner of the word.

Mandarin comprises a considerable number of sub-dialects, of which Pekingese, being the language of the capital, may be taken as the standard form, and likely to be of most service to the foreigner. The phraseology of this handbook, therefore, is in the Pekingese dialect, which, though differing in some degree from other varieties of Mandarin, will be generally understood throughout Northern and Central China.

II. For the **Shanghai** dialect the Union system of romanization, as agreed upon by the Shanghai Vernacular Society, is the only one as yet embodied in an English-Chinese dictionary. According to

this system, the vowels are pronounced for the most part in Continental fashion. Aspirates are indicated by an inverted comma, as in the Pekingese, or by the presence of an *h*. *F* is also aspirated. An apostrophe prefixed to a consonant shows that it is unaspirated, or pronounced with closed glottis and hardly any vibration of the larynx. A few peculiar sounds that may be noticed are the monosyllables *ng*, *m*, and *r*, with a slight vowel-sound before the consonant; *ts*, *dz*, *s*, and *z*, in which the vowel-sound is akin to Wade's *ü*; and the initials *ky*, which is not unlike unaspirated *ch*, but cannot well be represented by any English combination; and *hy*, which is something like *sh*, but less sibilant. It corresponds to Wade's *hs*. The Shanghai tones are four in number. A small semicircle to the left of a word indicates the rising tone; to the right, the departing tone. A final *h* or *k* indicates the entering tone; and all other words are in the even tone.

III. The **Cantonese** transliteration employed in the present handbook is based on the system devised by Sir William Jones for Oriental languages, as adapted by Dr. S. Wells Williams, with a few necessary corrections. Only eighteen of the letters of the English alphabet are required to represent the 800 different sounds of Cantonese speech, *b*, *d*, *j*, *q*, *r*, *v*, *x*, and *z* being unnecessary. Each of the five vowels (as well as the diphthongs) is divisible into long and short.

In a certain class of final particles, the *k* placed above the line, as in *lo^k*, is scarcely sounded. Aspirates and non-aspirates are sharply distinguished in Cantonese. Consonants which are never aspirated (e.g. *s*) should be pronounced more softly than in English. Each of the four tone-classes is subdivided into an upper and a lower series, with the difference of an octave in musical pitch between the upper even and lower even; moreover, a third entering tone has been added, midway in pitch between the other two, so that there are nine distinct tones in the Cantonese dialects; and besides these, there are certain 'variant' tones, confined to the colloquial and expressive of emphasis, emotion, &c.

An asterisk shows that the word is in a variant tone. A circle at the lower left-hand corner marks the variant of the upper even tone, thus: *ḡsün*, a grandson.

More precise and detailed explanations regarding the pronunciation of all three dialects are given below.

MANDARIN (PEKINGESE)

VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS

a	<i>a</i> in <i>father</i> .
ai	like <i>aye</i> . The Italian <i>ai</i> in <i>háii</i> .
e	<i>e</i> in <i>yet</i> .
ei	<i>ey</i> in <i>grey</i> .
ê	<i>u</i> in <i>sun</i> .
i	singly, or as a final, <i>ee</i> in <i>tree</i> : in <i>ih</i> , <i>in</i> , <i>ing</i> shortened as in <i>chick</i> , <i>chin</i> , <i>thing</i> .
o	generally as in <i>roll</i> . In the syllables <i>ho</i> (river) and <i>ko</i> or <i>k'o</i> , the vowel is most nearly the <i>ê</i> given above.
ou	between <i>ow</i> in <i>tower</i> and <i>oe</i> in <i>toe</i> .
u	singly, or as a final, the <i>oo</i> in <i>too</i> : in <i>un</i> and <i>ung</i> shortened as in the Italian <i>punto</i> , <i>lungo</i> .
ü	the French <i>u</i> or German <i>ü</i> .
ũ	between the <i>i</i> in <i>lit</i> and the <i>u</i> in <i>shut</i> .

In other vowel combinations (diphthongs or triphthongs)—*ao*, *ia*, *iai*, *ie*, *io*, *iü*, *ua*, *uai*, *uei*, *ue*, *ui*, *uo*, *üa*, *üe*—the sounds are distinct: e.g. the *ie* is as in *siesta*.

CONSONANTS

ch	as in <i>chair</i> .
h	as in the Scotch <i>loch</i> .
† hs	To pronounce <i>hsing</i> drop the first <i>i</i> in <i>hissing</i> ; the resultant <i>s</i> sound will approximate to the <i>hs</i> of Pekingese.
j	like <i>z</i> in <i>brazier</i> .
† ng	To produce this, when it is an initial, take the sounds in the French <i>mon galant</i> .
† rh	in <i>êrh</i> is approximately the <i>r</i> sound in <i>burrow</i> .
† ss	only found in <i>ssü</i> . The sound is between the <i>si</i> in <i>sin</i> and the <i>su</i> in <i>sun</i> .
† tz	only found in <i>tzü</i> and <i>tz'ü</i> .

The rest of the consonants are as in English. The sounds marked † should be learnt from a native.

ASPIRATES

These are strong breathings between the initials *ch*, *k*, *p*, *t*, *ts*, and *tz* and the vowels following them. They are represented by inverted commas, and are very important in all dialects. It must be carefully remembered that a sound aspirated represents an entirely different word from the same sound unaspirated.

TONES

In the Pekingese dialect there are four. In this vocabulary they are denoted by numbers (1, 2, 3, and 4) attached to the romanized sound; in words or phrases of more than one character the tone numbers are attached to those sounds only which are essential.

The tones are of the first importance. They can only be learnt from a native.

SHANGHAI DIALECT

VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS

a	<i>a</i> in <i>father</i> .
au	<i>au</i> in <i>fraud</i> .
e	<i>e</i> in <i>prey</i> ; in <i>eh</i> the <i>e</i> in <i>met</i> .
eu	nearly the <i>i</i> in <i>mirth</i> .
i	<i>i</i> in <i>caprice</i> ; as an initial, the <i>i</i> in <i>view</i> ; in <i>ing</i> , <i>ih</i> the <i>i</i> in <i>pit</i> .
o	<i>o</i> in <i>no</i> : in <i>ong</i> the sound is shorter.
oe	nearly the German <i>ö</i> or French <i>eu</i> .
oo	<i>oo</i> in <i>moon</i> .
u	nearly the <i>oo</i> in <i>foot</i> : in <i>ung</i> , <i>uh</i> the <i>u</i> in <i>sun</i> .
ui	is the French <i>u</i> or German <i>ü</i> .

In other vowel combinations—*ia*, *iau*, *ie*, *ieu*—the sounds are distinct: e.g. *ie* is as in *siesta*.

Single vowels followed by *k* retain their long sound; followed by *h* they are shortened.

CONSONANTS

ch	as in <i>chair</i> .
hy	nearly the Pekingese <i>hs</i> .
hw	<i>wh</i> in <i>where</i> .
j	nearly the <i>j</i> in <i>jug</i> .
ky	a difficult sound which might be better represented by <i>t ky</i> or an unaspirated <i>ch</i> .
ng	nearly as in <i>song</i> .

The rest of the consonants are pronounced generally as in English. The final *k* and *h* are NOT pronounced: they indicate that the vowel preceding is pronounced abruptly.

ASPIRATES

The initial vowels and consonants are divided into three series:

- (1) the Higher, or Unaspirated;
- (2) the Middle, or Aspirated; and
- (3) the Lower, or slightly Aspirated.

The Higher series are *p*, 'm, 'v, *t*, *ts*, *s*, 'l, 'n, 'ny, 'ng, *k*, *ky*, *kw*, pure vowel-sounds, *i* and 'w.

The Middle series are *p'*, *f*, *t'*, *ts'*, *k'*, *ch*, *kw'*, *h*, *hy*, and *hw*.

The Lower series are *b*, *m*, *v*, *d*, *dz*, *z*, *l*, *n*, *ny*, *ng*, *g*, *j*, *gw*, *y*, and *w*; and vowels with an inverted comma (') before them.

In the Middle series the breathings (aspirates) are strong; in the Lower series very slight.

TONES

There are four tones:

zang sung indicated by a ^c to the left of the word (^c*zang*):

chui sung indicated by a ² to the right of the word (*chui*²):

The final *h* or *k* indicates the *zeh sung* (*zeh*).

All other words are in the *bing sung*.

The tones can only be learnt from a native.

CANTONESE

VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS

a	<i>u</i> in <i>mutter</i> .
ai	<i>i</i> in <i>idle</i> pronounced quickly.
á	<i>a</i> in <i>father</i> .
ái	<i>ai</i> in <i>aisle</i> .
au	<i>ow</i> in <i>how</i> .
áu	<i>ow</i> with a broader sound.
e	<i>e</i> in <i>pet</i> .
é	<i>ey</i> in <i>they</i> .
ei	<i>ay</i> in <i>pay</i> .
i	<i>i</i> in <i>pit</i> .
í	<i>i</i> in <i>machine</i> .
o	<i>o</i> in <i>wrong</i> .
ò	<i>o</i> in <i>home</i> .
ö	the German <i>ö</i> .
u	<i>u</i> in <i>bull</i> .
ú	<i>oo</i> in <i>fool</i> .
ü	the French <i>u</i> or German <i>ü</i> .

In other vowel combinations the sounds are distinct.

CONSONANTS

ch	as in <i>chair</i> .
ng	as in <i>sing a song</i> : the initial sound is produced by dropping the <i>si</i> in <i>sing</i> .
sz	is the Pekingese <i>ssü</i> .
tsz	is the Pekingese <i>tsü</i> .

The rest of the consonants are generally as in English. In some words, called finals, used at the end of a phrase or sentence, the *k* placed above the line, as in *lo^k*, is scarcely sounded.

ASPIRATES

These occur in syllables beginning with *ch*, *k*, *p*, *t* and *ts*. They are represented by inverted commas.

TONES

The tones in Cantonese are more complicated than in Pekingese or the Shanghai dialect.

There are nine principal tones, divided into four classes :

1st Tone Class	Upper even tone	marked as in	“fu.
	Lower even tone		“fu.
2nd Tone Class	Upper rising tone	” ”	“fu.
	Lower rising tone		“fu.
3rd Tone Class	Upper receding tone	” ”	fu ² .
	Lower receding tone		fu ² .
4th Tone Class	Upper entering tone	” ”	chuk ₂ .
	Middle entering tone		chuk ₀ .
	Lower entering tone		chuk ₂ .

Besides the above nine tones there are ‘variant’ tones; these are marked by an asterisk. There is a circle at the position of the even tone marks to denote the variant of the upper even tone.

These explanations are given to elucidate the marks used in the vocabulary. The tones themselves can only be learnt from a native.

M. = **Mandarin**; *S.* = **Shanghai**; and *C.* = **Cantonese**.

VOCABULARIES

A is expressed by numeratives or classifiers, the commonest of which is

- M.* 一個 *i² ko*
S. 一个 *ih kuh*
C. 一個 *yat, ko³*

Abacus

- M.* 算盤 *suan⁴ p'an*
S. „ „ *soen²-ben*
C. „ „ *sün² p'ún*

Abdomen

- M.* 肚子 *tu⁴-tzü*
S. 肚皮 *'doo-bi*
C. 肚 *t'ò*

Able

- M.* 會 *hui⁴*; 能 *nêng²*;
 能穀 *nêng²-kou*
S. (1) *we³*; (2) *nung*;
 (3) *nung-keu³*
C. (1) *'wúi*; (2) *ɣnang*

— to do

- M.* 會做 *hui⁴ tso⁴*
S. „ „ *we³ tsoo³*
C. „ „ *'wúi tsò²*

Aboard

- M.* 在船上 *tsai⁴ ch'uan² shang*
S. 拉 „ „ *la² zen laung²*
C. 在 „ „ *tsoi² shün shōng²*

About

- M.* 上下 *shang⁴ hsia⁴*; 左右 *tso³ yu⁴*
S. (1) *'zaung 'au*; (2) *tsi² yeu²*
C. (1) *shong² ha²**; (2) *'tso yaú²*

Above

- M.* 上 *shang⁴*; 上頭 *shang⁴-t'ou*; 在上面 *tsai⁴ shang⁴ mien*
S. (1) *'zaung*; (2) *'zaung-deu*;
 拉上面 *la² 'zaung mien²*
C. 上高 *shōng² kò*; 在上 *tsoi² shōng²*

Abroad

- M.* 在外 *tsai⁴ wai⁴*
S. 外 *nga²*
C. (1) *tsoi² ngoi²*

Abroad, to go

M. 出外 ch'u¹ wai⁴

S. 洋 ts'eh yang

C. 上外 ch'ut, ngoi²

Absence. See Leave.

Absent (not present)

M. 不在這兒 (or 這裏)
pu⁴ tsai⁴ chē⁴ 'rh (or chē⁴-li)S. 勿拉拉 'veh leh-la²; 不在
peh 'dzeC. 唔在 唔係
處 唔 'hai shū²

— from home

M. 不在家 pu⁴ tsai⁴ chia¹

S. 出家 tseh kya

C. 唔在家 唔 tsoi² 𨳊

Abuse (verb)

M. 罵 ma⁴; (ill-use) 妄用
wang⁴ yung⁴S. 罵人 mo³ nyungC. (1) má²; (ill-use) 薄待
pok² toi²

Abuse (noun)

M. 罵人的話 ma⁴ jên² ti
hua⁴S. 格 mo³ nyung
kuh' wo²C. 嘅說話 má²
yan ke³ shü² wá²

Accept

M. 受 shou⁴; 領收 ling³
shou¹S. (1) 'zeu; 領 ling; 收受
seu 'zeuC. 收 𨳊 shau¹

Accident

M. 意外 i⁴ wai⁴; 偶然的事
ou³-jan² ti shih⁴S. (1) i² nga²; 偶然格事
體 'ngeu-zen kuh z²-t'iC. (1) yf ngoi²; 意外嘅
事 yf ngoi² ke³ sz²

Accommodation

Have you any — ?

M. 有房屋沒有 yu³
fang² wu¹ mei² yuS. 有勿有房間 'yeu
'veh 'yeu vaung kanC. 有地方俾... 居住
有呀 'yaú téi²
fong 'péi... kui chü²
mò á²

Accurate

M. 不錯 pu⁴ ts'o⁴; 正對
chêng⁴ tui⁴; 準 chun³S. 勿錯 'veh ts'o; 對个
te² kuhC. 有錯 mò ts'o²; (3) 𨳊 chun

Action

M. 行爲 hsing² wei

S. „ „ ‘ang-we

C. „ „ ɣhang wai²

— (mil.)

M. 打仗 ta³ chang⁴

S. „ „ ‘tang tsang²

C. „ „ ‘tá chǒng²

Add

M. 加上 chia¹-shang ;

添上 t’ien¹-shang

S. (1) ka ; (2) t’ien

C. (1) ɕká ; (2) ɕt’ím

— up

M. 算起來 suan⁴ ch’i lai

S. 加 „ „ ka ‘chi le

C. 踢埋 t’ek_o ɕmái

Adjutant

M. 中軍 chung¹ chün¹

S. „ „ tsong kyuin

C. „ „ ɕchung ɕkwan

Admiral

M. 水師提督 shui³-shih
t’i²-tu

S. „ „ „ „ ‘soe-s-di-
tok

C. „ „ „ „ ‘shui ɕsz
ɕt’ái tuk₂

Admit

M. 承認 ch’êng² jên⁴

S. „ „ dzung nyung²

C. „ „ ɕshing ying²

Admit him

M. 准他進來 chun³ t’a
chin⁴ lai

S. 讓伊進來 nyang² yi
tsing²-le

C. 俾佢入嚟 ‘péi ɕk’ui
yap₂ ɕlai

Advance

M. 往前走 wang³ ch’ien²
ch’ü⁴

S. „ „ „ ‘waung zien chi²

C. 前去 ɕts’ín hui²

Advantage

M. 益處 i⁴-ch’u ; 好處
hao³-ch’u

S. (1) iuh-ts’u² ; (2) ‘hau-ts’u²

C. 益 yik₂ ; 好處 ‘hò ch’ü²

Aeroplane

M. 飛機 fei¹ chi¹ ; 飛船
fei¹ ch’uan²

S. (1) fi kyí ; (2) fi zen

C. (1) ɕféi ɕkéi ; (2) ɕféi ɕshün

Afloat

M. 浮漂 fu² p’iao⁴

S. 漂 p’iau ; 尗 ‘t’ung ; 浮
veu

C. 浮 ɕfaú

Africa

M. 非洲 fei¹ chou¹

S. „ „ 國 fi tseu kok

C. „ „ ɕféi ɕchau

After

M. 後頭 *hou⁴-t'ou*; 後來
hou⁴-lai²

S. (1) 'eu deu; (2) 'eu le

C. 後 *haú²*

Afternoon

M. 後半天 *hou⁴ pan t'ien*

S. 下半日 'au-pen²-nyih

C. 下晝 *há² chaú²*

Again

M. 再 *tsai⁴*; 又 *yu⁴*; 再一
回 *tsai⁴ i¹ hui²*

S. (1) tse³; (2) yí²; (3) tse³ ih
we

C. (1) tsoi³; (2) yaú²

Against

M. 相反 *hsiang¹ fan³*

S. " " siang-'fan

C. " " sǝng 'fán

— (opposite)

M. 對面 *tui⁴ mien⁴*

S. " " te³ mien²

C. " " tui³ mǐn²

To run —

M. 撞著 *chuang⁴ cho*

S. " " dzaung²-dzak; 撞
bang²

C. 撞著 *p'ung² chök_o*

Age

M. 年紀 *nien²-chi*

S. " " nyien-kyi²

C. " " ǵnín 'kéi

Agree

M. 合 *ho²*; 對 *tui⁴*; 答應
ta¹-ying

S. (1) 'eh; (2) te²

C. (1) hop₂; (2) tui²

— with

M. 合意 *ho² i⁴*

S. " " 'eh i²

C. " " hop₂ yí²

Ahead

M. 在前頭 *tsai⁴ ch'ien²-
t'ou*

S. 拉 " " la² zien-deu

C. 在 " " tsoi² ǵt'in ǵt'au

Aim (purpose)

M. 指向 *chih³-hsiang⁴*

S. 志 " " ts²-hyang²

C. 指 " " chí hǝng²; 志向
chí² hǝng²

To take accurate — (gun)

M. 描準 *miao² chun³*

S. 拿得定準頭 *nau tuh
ding² 'tsung deu*

C. 照準確的 *chiú² 'chun
k'ok_o tik_o*

Air

M. 氣 *ch'í⁴*; (vb.) 曬一曬
shai⁴ i shai; 透風 *t'ou⁴
fēng¹*

S. (1) chí²; (vb.) (2) so² ih so²;
(3) t'eu² fong

C. (1) héi²; (vb.) (3) t'au² ǵfung;
透氣 *t'au² héi²*

Alarm

- M. 驚慌 ching⁴ huang
 S. „ „ kyung waung
 C. „ „ cking fong

Alcohol

- M. 酒精 chiu³ ching¹
 S. „ „ tsieu tsing
 C. „ „ 'tsau¹ tsing

Alike

- M. 相同 hsiang¹ t'ung²; —
 樣 i¹ yang⁴
 S. (1) siang dong; (2) ih yang²;
 像 'ziang
 C. (1) sǒng, t'ung; (2) yat,
 yǒng²

Alive

- M. 活的 huo² ti; 活着
 huo² cho
 S. 活个 weh-kuh
 C. 生 sháng; 生活 sháng
 wút₂

He is still —

- M. 他還活着 t'a¹ hai²
 huo² cho
 S. 伊還活拉 yi wan weh
 la²
 C. 佢重生 k'ui chung²
 sháng

All

- M. 都 tou¹; 全 ch'ian²
 S. 攏總 'long 'tsong; —
 切 ih ts'ih
 C. 喊 棒 哈 hám² pá²
 láng²; 唛 sái¹; 攏總
 'lung 'tsung

Allow

- M. 准 chun³; 許 hsü³
 S. „ 'tsung; „ 'hyui
 C. „ 'chun; 由得 yau
 tak; 俾 'péi

Ally (country)

- M. 聯盟國 lien² mêng² kuo²
 S. „ „ „ lien mung² kok
 C. „ „ „ c'lün máng kwok

Almost

- M. 差不多 ch'a¹ pu to¹;
 幾幾乎 chi¹-chi¹-hu¹
 S. 差勿多 ts'o-'veh-too;
 (2) 'kyi-'kyi-'oo
 C. (1) ch'a pat, to

Alone

- M. 單 tan¹; 孤獨 ku¹ tu²
 S. 單獨 tan dok; 獨干
 子 dok, koen 'ts
 C. (1) tán; (2) kwú tuk₂

Along*M.* 從 ts'ung²*S.* „ dzong; 同 dong*C.* (lengthwise) 掂 tím²; 直埋
chik₂; (with) 同埋
ɿ'ung ɿmái**To take —***M.* 帶去 tai⁴ ch'ü⁴*S.* „ „ ta² chi²*C.* „ 埋 tái² ɿmái**Alongside (shore)***M.* 泊岸 po⁴ an⁴*S.* 傍 „ baung ngoen³*C.* 在 „ 傍 tsoi² ngon² p'ong**— a ship***M.* 靠船 k'ao⁴ ch'uan²*S.* „ „ k'au² zen*C.* 拍埋船邊 p'ák ɿmái
ɿshün pín**Aloud***M.* 大聲 ta⁴ shêng¹*S.* „ „ doo² sang; 響
ɿhyang*C.* „ „ tái² sheng¹ †**Already***M.* 已經 i³-ching¹*S.* „ „ ɿ-kyung*C.* „ „ ɿyí ɿking**Also***M.* 也 yeh³; 又 yu⁴*S.* „ „ ɿa; „ ɿyi; 還 wan*C.* (2) yau²; 亦 (係) yik₂
(hai²); 都 ɿtò**Although***M.* 雖然 sui¹-jan²*S.* „ „ soe-zen; 雖是
soe-²z*C.* „ „ ɿsui ɿyín**Altogether***M.* 一齊 i¹ ch'í²; 通共
t'ung¹ kung⁴*S.* (1) ih zi*C.* (1) yat, ɿts'ai**Always***M.* 常常 ch'ang² ch'ang²*S.* „ „ dzang-dzang*C.* 時時 ɿshí ɿshí; 常時
ɿshöng ɿshí**He — says***M.* 他老說 t'a¹ lao³ shuo¹*S.* 伊常話 yi dzang wo*C.* 佢時時話 ɿk'ui ɿshi
ɿshi wá²*Am.* See phrases.**Ambulance (carriage)***M.* 負傷車 fu⁴ shang¹ ch'ê¹*S.* „ „ „ veu² saung ts'o*C.* 病 „ 搬 peng²* ɿshöng
ɿpún

Ambulance (corps)

M. 衛生隊 wei⁴ shêng¹ tui⁴

S. „ „ „ we³ sung de³

C. 担架 „ 'ch'e ká³ tui²

Ambush

M. 埋伏 mai²-fu

S. „ „ „ ma-vok

C. „ „ „ 𨮒𨮒 fuk²

America

M. 美國 mei³ kuo

S. „ „ „ 'me kok

C. „ „ „ 𨮒𨮒 kwok_o

Ammunition

M. 軍火 chün¹ huo³; 火

藥彈子 huo³-yao

tan⁴-tzu

S. (1) kyuin 'hoo; (2) 'hoo-yak dan-ts

C. (1) 𨮒 kwan 'fo; (2) 'fo yök₂ tán² 'tsz

Among

M. 中間 chung¹-chien; 在

裏頭 tsai⁴ li³-t'ou

S. 當中 taung tsong

C. 在 „ tsoi² 𨮒 chung

Anchor

M. (s.) 錨 mao²; (vb.) 灣船

wan¹ ch'uan²; 停船

t'ing² ch'uan³

S. (s.) (1) mau; (vb.) (3) ding zen

C. (s.) (1) 𨮒 náú; (vb.) (2) 𨮒 wán 灣泊 𨮒 wán pok₂

To drop —

M. 下錨 hsia⁴ mao²

S. 拋 „ p'au mau

C. 下 „ há 𨮒 náú; 拋錨 p'áu 𨮒 náú

At —

M. 灣着 wan¹ cho

S. „ „ „ 'wan dzak

C. 碇泊 ting² pok₂

And

M. 並 ping⁴; 跟 kên; 和 ho², huo²

S. 𨮒 'lau; 搭之 tah-ts

C. 同 𨮒 t'ung; 共 kung²; 兼 𨮒 kím; 又 yau²

Angry

M. 發氣 fa¹ ch'i⁴; 怒氣 nu⁴ ch'i

S. 動氣 'dong-chi³

C. 男𨮒 𨮒 náú; 怒 nò²

Don't be —

M. 別生氣 pieh² shêng¹ ch'i⁴

S. 勿要生氣 'veh iau³ sang chi³

C. 咪怒起𨮒 'mai nò² 'héi 𨮒 lai

Animal

M. 牲口 shēng¹-k'ou; 畜
生 ch'u⁴-shēng

S. 中牲 tsong-sang; (1) sang-
k'eu

C. 禽獸 k'am shau²; (2)
ch'uk, sháng⁺

— (quadruped)

M. 走獸 tsou² shou⁴

S. „ „ tseu seu²

C. „ „ tsaú shau²

Ankle

M. 踝子骨 huai²-tzü ku³

S. „ 骨 koo-kweh

C. 脚眼 kōk, ngán

Answer

M. 答應 ta¹-ying

S. 回答 we-tah

C. 答應 táp, ying² (or either
alone)

— (letter)

M. 回信 hui² hsin⁴

S. „ „ we-sing²

C. „ „ wú-i-sun²

Antidote

M. 解毒藥 chieh³ tu² yao⁴

S. „ „ „ ka² dok yak

C. „ „ „ kái tuk₂ yök₂

Anvil

M. 鐵砧子 t'ieh³ chên¹-tzü

S. „ 墩 t'ih tung

C. 鐵砧 t'it, cham

Any. See phrases.

Anywhere

M. 不論何處 pu⁴ lun⁴
ho² ch'u⁴

S. 隨便那裏 dzoe-bien²
a li²

C. 邊處都好 pín shü²
tò hò

Apology

M. 認錯的話 jên⁴-ts'o⁴-
ti hua⁴; 賠不是 p'ei²
pu²-shih

S. 認錯个話 nyung² ts'o
kuh wo²; 賠勿是 be
veh 'z

C. 說開 (or 認錯) 嘅話
shüt, hoi (or ying² ts'o²)
ke² wá^{2*}

Appear

M. 發現 fa¹ hsien⁴; 顯
hsien³

S. 出現 ts'eh yien²; (2)
hyien²

C. 現出 yín² ch'ut, ; 出顯
chut, hín

Appear to be right

- M.* 似乎不錯 ssü⁴-hu pu²
ts'o⁴
S. „ „ 對个 'z- 'oo te'
kuh
C. „ „ 不錯 'ts'z 'wü
pat, t 'o

Appoint

- M.* 派 p'ai⁴
S. „ „ p'a²
C. 設立 ch'it_o láp₂

— a day

- M.* 定日子 ting⁴ jih⁴-tzü
S. „ „ „ ding² nyih-ts
C. „ „ „ ting² yat₂ 'tsz

Approach

- M.* 近上來 chin⁴ shang lai²
S. „ „ „ 'jung 'zaung le
C. 埋嚟 'mái lai; 埋 'mái

April

- M.* 四月 ssü⁴ yüeh⁴
S. „ „ „ s' nyoeh
C. 英四月 ying sz' yüt₂

Arch

- M.* 槿門 hsüan⁴ mên²
S. 月洞 nyoeh dong²
C. 拱 'kung

— (of bridge)

- M.* 橋洞 ch'iao² tung⁴; 橋
空 ch'iao² k'ung¹
S. (1) jau dong²
C. 橋拱 'k'fú 'kung

Arch (memorial)

- M.* 牌樓 p'ai²-lou
S. „ „ „ ba-leu
C. „ „ „ p'ai² lau

— (gateway)

- M.* 甕洞兒 wêng⁴ tung 'rh
S. 門當 mung taung²
C. 門拱 'mún 'kung

Are. See phrases.**Arm**

- M.* 肱臂 ko¹-pei
S. 臂膊 pi²-pok
C. 手 'shau

Armed

- M.* 備帶兵器 pei⁴ tai⁴
ping¹ ch'i
S. „ „ „ „ be² ta²
ping-chi²
C. „ „ „ „ péi² tái²
'ping héi²

Armour

- M.* 甲 chia³; 盔甲 k'uei¹
chia³
S. „ „ kah
C. „ „ káp_o; (2) k'wai káp_o

Arms

- M.* 兵器 ping¹ ch'i; 軍器
chün¹ ch'i⁴
S. (1) ping-chi²
C. (1) 'ping héi²; (2) 'kwan héi²

Army

M. 兵 ping¹; 軍 chün¹; 陸
軍 lu⁴ chün¹

S. (1) ping; (2) kyuin

C. (1) ping; (2) kwan; (3)
luk₂ kwan

— corps

M. 軍 chün¹

S. „ 團 kyuin doen

C. „ „ kwan t'ün

Arrange

M. 辦 pan⁴; 擺 pai³; 安排
an¹ p'ai²

S. (1) ban³; (3) oen-ba

C. (in order) 排開 p'ai* 'hoi;
(a matter) 辦妥 pán² t'o

Arrest

M. 拿 na²; 捉拿 cho¹ na²

S. „ nau; „ „ tsauh nau

C. 拉 lái

Arrive

M. 到 tao⁴; 來到 lai² tao⁴

S. „ tau³

C. „ tò³; 嚟到 lái tò³

Arsenal

M. 軍器局 chün¹ ch'i chü²

S. „ „ „ kyuin chi³ jok

C. „ „ „ kwan héi³ kuk₂

Artery

M. 血管子 hsieh³ kuan³-
tzü

S. „ 脈 hyoeh mak

C. „ „ 管 hüt₀ mak₂ 'kwún

Article

M. 東西 tung¹-hsi; 物件
wu⁴ chien⁴

S. 物事 veh z³

C. „ mat₂; (2) mat₂ kín²*

Artillery

M. 炮 p'ao⁴

S. „ p'au³

C. „ p'áu³

As

M. 如 ju²

S. „ zu

C. 卽如 tsik₃ yü } (see
phrases)

Ascent (road)

M. 上坡兒 shang⁴ p'o¹ 'rh

S. „ „ 'zaung p'oo

C. „ 去嘅路 'shöng hui³
ke³ lò²

Ashes

M. 灰 hui¹; 火灰 huo³-hui¹

S. „ hwe; „ „ 'hoo hwe

C. „ fui; „ „ 'fo fui

Ashore

M. 岸上 an⁴ shang

S. 拉岸上 la³ ngoen³ laung³

C. 岸上 ngon² shöng²

Ashore, go

- M.* 上岸 shang⁴ an⁴
S. „ „ ‘zaung ngoen³
C. „ „ ‘shöng ngon²

Asia

- M.* 亞洲 ya⁴ chou¹; 亞西
 亞 ya⁴-hsi-ya⁴
S. (1) ya tseu
C. (1) á² ‘chau¹; (2) á² ‘sai á²

Ask (enquire)

- M.* 問 wên⁴; 打聽 ta³-t’ing
S. „ mung²; „ „ ‘tang-t’ing²
C. „ man²

— (beg)

- M.* 求 ch’iu²
S. „ jeu
C. „ ‘k’au¹

Ass

- M.* 驢 lü²
S. „ 子 li-ts
C. „ ‘lui

Assault

- M.* 打 ta³; 攻擊 kung¹ chi¹
S. „ ‘tang; 攻打 kong-
 ‘tang
C. „ ‘tá

Astray

- M.* 走錯了 tsou³ ts’o⁴ lo
S. „ „ ‘tseu ts’o
C. 失路 shat, lò²; 蕩失
 tong² shat,

At

- M.* 在 tsai⁴; 於 yü² (see
 phrases)
S. „ ‘dze; 拉拉 leh-la²
C. „ tsoi²; 喲 ‘hai

At least

- M.* 至少 chih⁴ shao³
S. „ „ ts’ ‘sau
C. „ „ ch’ ‘sfú

At most

- M.* 至多 chih⁴ to¹
S. „ „ ts’-too
C. „ „ ch’ ‘to

At once

- M.* 立刻 li⁴-k’o⁴
S. „ „ lih-k’uh
C. 卽 „ tsik, hak,

Attach

- M.* 聯合 lien² ho²
S. 連攏 lien-‘long
C. 相連 ‘söng ‘lín

— (stick)

- M.* 貼 t’ieh¹
S. „ t’ih
C. „ t’ip_o; 黏 ‘ch’í

Attack

- M.* 攻打 kung¹ ta³
S. „ „ kong-‘tang
C. „ „ ‘kung ‘tá; ‘tá

Axle

- M.* (1) 軸子 chou²-tzu⁵;
 (2) 車軸 ch'ê⁴ chou²
S. (1) jok-⁵ts
C. (2) ,ch'ê chuk, *

Back

- M.* 背 *pei*⁴
S. „ *pe*²
C. „ *púi*²

Come —

- M. 回來 hui² lai
S. ,, ,, we le
C. 翻鑊 fán huo

Go _____

- M. 回去 hui² ch'ü⁴
S. „ „ we chi³
C. 翻 „ fán hui³

— door

- | | | |
|-----------|-------|-----------------------------------|
| <i>M.</i> | 後門 | hou ⁴ mên ² |
| <i>S.</i> | ,, ,, | ‘eu-mung |
| <i>C.</i> | ,, ,, | haú ² cún |

Bacon

- M.* 薰猪肉 hsün¹ chu¹ jou⁴
S. „ „ hyuin ts-nyok
C. 烟 „ „ yín çhü yuk,

Bad

- M. 不好 pu⁴ hao³
S. 勿 ,, 'veh⁴ hau; 怗休 cheu¹
C. 唔 ,, ɿm⁴ hò

Badge

- M. 號 hao⁴; 號頭兒 hao⁴
t'ou² 'rh
S. „ 'au'
C. 記號 kái³ hò²

Baggage

- M.* 行李 hsing²-li
S. „ „ ʼang-ʼli
C. ʼ „ „ ɕhang ʼlei

Bake

- M.* 烤 k'ao³; 烘 hung¹; 燒 shao¹
S. (2) hong; (3) sau
C. 局 kuk₂

Balance

- M. 餘剩 yü² shêng¹; 盈餘
ying² yü²; 數餘 fu¹ yü
S. 找頭 'tsau-deu; 餘下
yüi 'au
C. (1) yü shing²

— (money)

- M. 存款 ts'un² k'uan³
S. „ „ dzung-⁷kw'en
C. 數尾 shò⁷ 'méi .

Bale

- M. 包兒 pao¹ 'rh; 疳 p'i²;
(vb.) 疳水 yao³ (or
k'uai⁸) shui³
S. 包 pau; (z) pi; (vb.) 'yau 's
C. ,, 疳 páu; (vb.) 疳水 fú²
'shui

Ball*M.* 球 ch'iu²*S.* „ jeu*C.* „ ɕk'au**Ballast***M.* 壓載 ya¹ tsai³*S.* „ 船个物事 ah zen
kuh meh-z²*C.* 責載 chák_o tsoi²***Balloon***M.* 汽球 ch'i⁴ ch'iu²; 輕氣球 ch'ing¹ ch'i⁴ ch'iu²*S.* (1) chi²-jeu*C.* (1) héi² ɕk'au; (2) ɕheng⁺
héi² ɕk'au**Bamboo***M.* 竹子 chu²-tzü; 竹竿
chu² kan¹*S.* (1) tsok; 竹頭 tsok-deu*C.* (1) chuk,**Bandage***M.* (s.) 裹布 kuo³ pu⁴; (vb.)裹 kuo³; 纏 ch'an³*S.* (s.) 'koo poo'; (vb.) 'koo;
dzen²*C.* (s.) 布帶 pò² tái²; (vb.)
(3) chfn²**Bang (noise)***M.* 響聲 hung¹ shêng¹*S.* 嘖聲 bang² sang*C.* 哐聲 p'áng sheng⁺**Bank**

— (slope)

M. 坡 p'o¹; 隄 ti¹*S.* „ p'oo; „ tih*C.* 斜下嘅地 ɕts'e há² ke²
téi²

— (river)

M. 河岸 ho² an⁴*S.* „ „ 'oo ngoen²*C.* „ „ ɕho ngon²; 河邊
ɕho ɔpfn

— (money)

M. 銀行 yin² hang²*S.* „ „ nyung-⁺aung*C.* „ „ ɕngan ɕhong*

— -note

M. 銀票 yin² p'iao⁴*S.* „ „ nyung-p'iao²*C.* „ 紙 ɕngan 'chí**Banners***M.* 旗 ch'i²*S.* „ ji*C.* „ ɕk'éi; 標 pfú**The eight Manchu —***M.* 八旗 pa¹ ch'i²*S.* „ „ pah ji*C.* „ „ pát_o ɕk'éi**Barber***M.* 剃頭的 t'i⁴ t'ou² ti*S.* „ „ 个 t'i²-deu kuh*C.* „ „ 佬 t'ai² ɕt'au ɕlò;剪髮佬 ɕsín fát_o ɕlò

Barley*M.* 大麥 ta⁴ mai⁴*S.* „ „ da²-mak*C.* „ „ tái² mak₂**Barracks***M.* 兵營 ping¹ ying²; 營盤 ying² p'an*S.* (1) ping yung; (2) yung ben*C.* 兵房 ping fong***Barrel***M.* 桶子 t'ung³-tzü*S.* „ „ 'dong*C.* 琵琶桶 p'úi p'á t'ung**Barricade***M.* 寨欄 chai⁴ lan²; 柵欄 cha⁴ lan²*S.* (2) sah-lah*C.* (2) ch'ák, lán**Base (mil.)***M.* 大本營 ta⁴ pên³ ying²*S.* „ „ „ doo³ 'pung yung*C.* „ „ „ tái² 'pún ying

— (naval)

M. 海軍營 hai³ chün¹ ying²*S.* „ „ „ 'he kyuin yung*C.* „ „ „ 'hoi kwan ying**Basin***M.* 盆 p'en²*S.* „ „ 'bung*C.* „ „ p'ún**Basket (with handle)***M.* 籃子 lan²-tzü*S.* „ „ lan*C.* 笠 lap₃; 簍 léi; 籃 lám***Bath***M.* 洗澡盆 hsi³ tsao³ p'en²*S.* 浴盆 yok bung*C.* 洗身桶 'sai shan t'ung
— (to bathe)*M.* 洗澡 hsi³ tsao³*S.* 淨浴 zing²-yok*C.* 洗身 'sai shan**Battalion***M.* 營 ying²; 一隊步兵 i tui⁴ pu⁴ ping¹*S.* (1) yung; (2) ih de² boo² ping*C.* 旅團 'lui t'ün**Battery (artillery)***M.* 炮隊 p'ao⁴ tui⁴*S.* „ „ p'au² de²*C.* „ „ p'áu² tui²**Battle***M.* 戰 chan⁴*S.* „ „ tsen²*C.* „ „ 鬥 chin² tau²

To fight a —

M. 打仗 ta³ chang⁴; 打戰 ta³ chan⁴*S.* (1) 'tang-tsang²; (2) 'tang-tsen²*C.* (2) 'tà chin²

Battle, to lose a

M. 打敗仗 ta³ pai⁴ chang⁴

S. " " " 'tang ba' tsang²

C. " " " 'ta pái² chōng²

To win a —

M. 打勝仗 ta³ shēng⁴

S. " " " 'tang sung²

C. " " " 'tá shing²

C. " " " 'chōng²

Battle-field

M. 戰場 chan⁴ ch'ang³

S. " " tsen²-dzang

C. " " chin³ ch'ōng

Battle-ship

M. 軍艦 chūn¹ hsien⁴; 鐵

甲船 t'ieh³ chia³ ch'uan²

S. (1) kyuin chien; (2) t'ih kah sen

C. (1) kwan lám²; 戰艦 chin² lám²; (2) t'ít_o káp_o shūn

Bay

M. 海灣子 hai³ wan¹-tzū

S. " " 'hae-'wan

C. (海)灣 (hoi) wán; 澳 ò

Bayonet

M. 槍刺 ch'iang¹ tz'ü⁴

S. " " ts'iang ts'ü; 槍頭

刀 ts'iang-deu tau

C. 鎗頭劍 (or 刀) ts'ōng
t'áu kím' (or t'ò)

Be (vb.). See phrases.

Beach

M. 灘 t'an¹; 海邊 hai³ pien¹

S. " t'an; " " 'he pien

C. (2) hoi pín

Beacon (light)

M. 燈杆子 tēng¹ kan⁴-tzū

S. " " tung 'koen

C. " " tang kon

— (smoke)

M. 烟墩 yen¹ tun¹

S. " " ien tung

C. " " yín tun

Beans

M. 豆子 tou⁴-tzū

S. " " deu²-ts

C. " tau²*

— (broad beans)

M. 蠶豆 ts'an² tou⁴

S. " " zen deu²

C. 豆角 tau² kok_o

— (French beans)

M. 扁豆 pien³ tou⁴

S. " " 'pien deu²

C. 邊 " pín tau²*

Bear (vb.)

M. 忍 jên⁴; 耐 nai⁴

S. " 'nyung; 忍耐 'nyung
'ne²

C. " 'yàn; 抵(得) tai(tak_o)

Bear on the shoulders*M.* 挑 t'iao¹; 担 tan¹*S.* 捐 jien*C.* 托 t'ok_o**— on the head***M.* 載 tai⁴*S.* 頂 'ting*C.* 托 t'ok_o; 頂 'ting**Hard to —***M.* 難受 nan²-shou⁴*S.* „ „ nan 'zeu*C.* „ 抵得住 ɣnán 'tai
tak, chü²**To — hardship***M.* 受難 shou⁴ nan²*S.* „ „ 'zeu nan*C.* „ „ shaú² ɣnán**Unable to —***M.* 担当不住 tan¹ tang¹
pu chu⁴; 忍不住 jên³
pu chu⁴*S.* 担当勿起 tan-taung
'veh 'chi*C.* 唔抵得住 ɣm 'tai tak,
chü²**— in mind***M.* 留在心上 liu² tsai
hsin¹ shang*S.* 留在心裡 lieu 'dze
sing 'li*C.* 記在心 kéi³ tsoi² ɣsam**Bear (animal)***M.* 熊 hsiung¹*S.* „ yong*C.* „ (人) ɣhung (ɣyan*)**Beard***M.* 鬍子 hu²-tzü*S.* 鬚 soo*C.* „ ɣsò**Beat***M.* 打 ta³*S.* „ 'tang*C.* „ 'tá**Beautiful***M.* 好看 hao³ k'an⁴*S.* „ „ 'hau k'oen³; 趣
ts'ui²*C.* 好睇 hò 't'ai**Because***M.* 因為 yin¹-wei*S.* „ „ iung we³*C.* „ „ ɣyan wái²**Become***M.* 成 ch'êng²*S.* „ dzung*C.* „ ɣshing**Bed***M.* 牀 ch'uang³*S.* „ zaung*C.* „ ɣch'ong

Bed (stove-bed)*M.* 炕 k'ang⁴*S.* „ k'ong*C.* „ 牀 hong² ɕh'ong**Bedroom***M.* 睡覺的屋子 shui⁴chiao⁴ ti wu¹-tzü; 卧房wo⁴ fang²*S.* (2) ngoo² vaung*C.* 卧房 fan² ɕfong^{*}**Beef***M.* 牛肉 niu² jou*S.* „ „ nyeu nyok*C.* „ „ 𩚑肉 ngau² yuk²**Beer***M.* 大麥酒 ta⁴ mai⁴ chiu³;皮酒 p'i² chiu³*S.* (1) da²-mak 'tsieu; (2) bi-
'tsieu*C.* (2) 啤 pe 'tsau**Before (time and place)***M.* 前 ch'ien²; 先 hsien¹*S.* (1) zien; (2) sien*C.* (1) 𠵿ts'in; (time) 先 ɕsín**As —***M.* 照舊 chao⁴ chiu⁴*S.* „ 常 tsau² dzang*C.* „ 舊 chíu² kau²**— long***M.* 不久 pu chiu³*S.* 勿久 'veh 'kyeu*C.* 有耐 ɕmò noi^{2*}**Beforehand***M.* 預先 yü⁴ hsien¹*S.* „ „ yui² sien*C.* „ „ yü² ɕsín**Begin***M.* 動手 tung⁴ shou²; 起頭 ch'i³ t'ou²*S.* (2) 'chi deu*C.* 開手 hoi 'shau; (2) 'héi
ɕt'au**— speaking***M.* 開口 k'ai¹ k'ou³*S.* „ „ k'e 'k'eu*C.* „ „ 嚟講 hoi 'hau
ɕlai 'kong**— work***M.* 開工 k'ai¹ kung¹*S.* 動 „ 'dong kong*C.* 開 „ hoi ɕkung**Beginning***M.* 起頭兒 ch'i³ t'ou² 'rh*S.* „ „ 'chi deu; 頭 deu*C.* 始初 'ch'í ɕh'o**Behind***M.* 後頭 hou⁴-t'ou; 後面
hou⁴ mien⁴*S.* (1) 'eu deu; (2) 'eu mien*C.* 後便 hau² pín²

Belgium

- M. 比國 pi³ kuo
 S. „ „ pi³ kok
 C. „ „ pi³ kwok_o

Believe

- M. 信 hsin⁴; 相信 hsiang¹
 hsin⁴
 S. (1) sing²; (2) siang sing²
 C. (1) sun²

Bell

- M. 鐘 chung¹; 鈴鐺 ling²
 tang
 S. (1) tsong; (2) ling
 C. (1) chung; (a small hand-
 bell) 鈴仔 ling tsai

— tower

- M. 鐘樓 chung¹ lou²
 S. „ „ tsong leu
 C. „ „ chung lau^{*}

Belong

- M. 屬 shu³
 S. „ „ zok
 C. „ „ shuk₂

Below

- M. 下 hsia⁴; 底下 ti³ hsia
 S. „ „ „ „ ti³ au
 C. „ „ 底 há² tai (or tai)

Belt

- M. 帶子 tai⁴-tzü
 S. „ „ ta³ ts
 C. „ „ tái²

Belt, sword

- M. 刀帶 tao¹ tai⁴
 S. „ „ tau ta³
 C. 劍 „ kím² tái²

Bench

- M. 板凳 pan³ têng
 S. „ „ pan tung²
 C. 凳 tang²

Bend

- M. 彎曲 wan¹ ch'ü¹; (river)
 彎 wan¹; (vb.) 彎過
 來 wan¹ kuo lai
 S. (1) 'wan chok; (2) 'wan;
 (vb.) (3) 'wan koo² le
 C. (1) wán k'uk₂; (river) 河
 灣 ho wán; (vb.) 屈
 曲 wat, k'uk_o

To — the body

- M. 屈身 ch'ü¹ shên¹
 S. 曲 „ chok sung
 C. 屈 „ wat, shan

Beneath

- M. 底下 ti³-hsia; 在下邊
 tsai⁴ hsia⁴ pien
 S. (1) ti³ au; (2) dze au pien
 C. (1) tai há²

Benefit

- M. 益處 i⁴ ch'u; 利 li⁴
 S. (1) iuh ts'u²; 利益 li² iuh
 C. (1) yik, (ch'ü²)

Berry

M. 子兒 *tzŭ³ 'rh*S. 仔仔 *'ts 'ts*C. 小菓 *'sú¹ 'kwo*; 珠菓
chŭ¹ 'kwo

Berth (ship)

M. 泊所 *po⁴ so³*; 泊船
的地方 *po⁴ ch'uan²-
ti ti⁴-fang*S. 停船个地方 *ding sen
kuh di²-faung*C. 泊船之地 *pok₂ 'shŭn
chí téi²*

— (employment)

M. 事業 *shih⁴ yeh⁴*S. „ „ *z² nyih*C. „ „ *sz² yíp_o*

Beside

M. 旁邊 *p'ang² pien¹*; 在
旁 *tsai⁴ p'ang²*S. (1) *baung pien*; (2) *'dze
baung*C. 側邊 *chak, pín*

Besides

M. 另外 *ling⁴ wai⁴*S. „ „ *ling² nga²*C. „ „ *ling² ngoi²*

— this

M. 除此還有 *ch'u² tz'ŭ³
hai² yu³*S. „ „ 以外 *dzu 'ts'
'i nga²*C. 除此之外 *'ch'ü 'ts'z
'chí ngoi²*

Besiege

M. 攻圍 *kung¹ wei²*S. 圍困 *we kw'ung²*C. 攻圍 *kung 'wai*

Best

M. 最好 *tsui⁴ hao³*; 頂好
*ting³ hao³*S. (1) *tsoe² 'hau*; (2) *'ting 'hau*C. 至好 *ch' 'hò*; (2) *'ting
'hò*

— quality

M. 第一品 *ti⁴ i¹ p'in³*S. 頭品 *deu 'p'ing*C. 上上等 (質) *shöng²
shöng² 'tang (chat)*

Betray (secret)

M. 洩漏 *hsieh⁴ lou⁴*S. „ „ *sih leu²*C. „ „ *sít_o lau²*; 敗露
pái² lò²

— (treachery)

M. 欺陷 *ch'í¹ hsien⁴*; 失信
*shih¹ hsin⁴*S. (2) *seh sing²*C. (1) *ch'ei hám²*; (2) *shut, sun²*

Better

M. 更好 *kêng¹ hao³*S. 好一顏 *'hau ih 'ngan*C. 更好 *kang² 'hò*

Better, a little*M.* 好些 hao³ hsieh¹*S.* „ 點 'hau tien*C.* „ 啲 'hò_oti

— than that

M. 比那個強 pi³ na⁴-ko
ch'iang²*S.* 比伊個好 'pi i-kuh
'hau*C.* 重好過個啲 chung²
'hò kwo³ ko³ o_{ti}**Between***M.* 中間 chung¹ chien¹*S.* „ „ tsong kan*C.* „ „ chung_okán**Beverage***M.* 喝的 ho¹ ti*S.* „ 个 k'oe^h kuh*C.* 所飲之物 'sho 'yam
chí mat₂**Beware***M.* 戒 chieh⁴; 謹慎 chin³
shên⁴; 隄防 ti¹ fang*S.* (2) 'kyung zung²; 留神
lieu zung; 小心 'siau
sing*C.* 提防 t'ai⁴ fong**Beware of the dog***M.* 小心狗 hsiao³ hsin¹
kou³*S.* 留 „ „ lieu sing 'keu*C.* 提防惡狗 t'ai⁴ fong
ok_o 'kau**Beyond***M.* 外頭 wai⁴-t'ou; 以外
i³ wai⁴*S.* (1) nga² deu*C.* 之外 chí ngoi²; 在外
tsoi² ngoi²

— the frontier

M. 邊外 pien¹ wai⁴*S.* „ „ pien³ nga²*C.* 口外 'haú ngoi²; 口岸之
外 'haú ngon² chí ngoi²

— the time

M. 過了時候 kuo⁴ lo
shih²-hou*S.* „ 時 koo³ z*C.* „ „ 候 kwo³ shí haú²**Bicycle***M.* 腳踏車 chiao³ t'a⁴ ch'ê¹*S.* „ „ „ kyak dah t'so*C.* „ 車 kōk_och'e; 單車
tán_och'e**Big***M.* 大 ta⁴*S.* „ doo³*C.* „ tái²

Bigger

- M.* 大一點兒 ta⁴ i tie(n)³
'rh; 更大 kêng¹ ta⁴
S. 大—顏 doo³ ih 'ngan
C. (2) kang² tái²; (a little) 大
啲 tái² 〇ti

Biggest

- M.* 最大 tsui⁴ ta⁴; 頂大
的 ting³ ta⁴ ti
S. 頂大 'ting doo³; 頂大
个 'ting doo³ kuh
C. 至大 ch² tái²

Bill

- M.* 賬 chang⁴
S. „ tsang²
C. 單 〇tán

— of exchange

- M.* 滙票 hui⁴ p'iao⁴
S. „ „ we² p'iau²
C. „ 單 wui² 〇tán

— of lading

- M.* 載貨單 tsai³ huo⁴ tan¹
S. „ „ „ tse³ hoo³ tan
C. 攬載紙 〆lám tsoi² 'chi

Billet

- M.* 下處 hsia⁴ ch'u⁴; 歇宿
之所 hsieh¹ su⁴ chih¹
so³
S. (1) 'au ts'u²
C. 微發宿舍 〆méi fát 〇
suk, 'she

Bind

- M.* 綁起來 pang³ ch'i lai;
捆 k'un³
S. (1) 'paung 'chi le; (2) 'k'wung
C. 綁 'pong; (as straw, &c.)
札埋 chát 〇 〆mái

— the head

- M.* 包頭 pao¹ t'ou²
S. „ „ pau deu
C. „ „ 〆páu 〆t'au

Bird

- M.* 鳥兒 niao³ 'rh
S. 窩 'tiau
C. 雀 tsök 〇; 雀鳥 tsök 〇 〆nú

Bit. A —

- M.* 一塊 i¹ k'uai⁴; 一點
兒 i¹ t'ie(n)³ 'rh
S. (1) ih kw'e²; 一點點 ih
tien tien
C. 一塊 yat, fái²; 一啲
yat, 〇fí; 啲咁多 〆tí
kom² 〇to

— (horse's)

- M.* 嚼子 chiao²-tzü
S. „ „ ziah 'ts
C. 馬口鉗 〆má 'haú 〆k'ím

Bite

- M.* 咬 yao³
S. „ 'ngau
C. „ 'ngáu

Bitter

- M. 苦 k'u³
 S. „ k'oo
 C. „ 'fú

Black

- M. 黑 hei¹
 S. „ huh
 C. „ hak,

Blacksmith

- M. 鐵匠 t'ieh³ Chiang
 S. „ „ t'ih ziang³
 C. 打鐵佬 tá t'ít. ɿlò

Blame (vb.)

- M. 怪 kuai⁴; 說 不好
 shuo¹ pu hao³; 責 備
 tsê² pei⁴
 S. (1) kwa³; (3) tsuh be³
 C. 責成 chák. ɿshing

To — without cause

- M. 無故責罵 wu² ku⁴ tsê²
 ma⁴
 S. 無緣故責備人 m
 yoen-koo³ tsuh be³ nyung
 C. 無故責人 ɿmò kwú³
 chák. ɿyan

Blank

- M. 空 k'ung¹
 S. „ k'ong
 C. „ 白 chung pák₂

Blank forms

- M. 空白樣式 k'ung¹ pai²
 yang⁴ shih⁴
 S. „ „ „ „ k'ong bak
 yang³ suh
 C. 格式紙 kák. shik, 'chí

— cartridge

- M. 無彈子的火藥包
 wu² tan⁴-tzu¹ ti huo³-yao⁴
 pao¹
 S. 沒彈子个火藥包
 m tan⁴ 'ts kuh³ 'hoo yak pau
 C. 無彈子火藥包 ɿmò
 tán² 'tsz 'fo yök. ɿpáu

Blanket

- M. 氈子 chan¹-tzu¹
 S. 絨毯 nyong t'an
 C. (white) 白氈 pák. ɿchín

Blaze

- M. 火光 huo³ kuang¹; 火苗
 兒 huo³ miao³ 'rh; (vb.)
 發炎 fa¹ yen²
 S. (1) 'hoo kwaung; (vb.) 放
 光 faung³ kwaung
 C. (1) 'fo ɿkwong; (vb.) (3) fát.
 ɿým

Bleed

- M. 流血 liu² hsieh³
 S. „ „ lieu hyoeh
 C. „ „ ɿlau hüt.

Blind

- M. 眼瞎了 yen³ hsia¹-lo
 S. 瞎眼 hah 'ngan
 C. 盲 máng; 盲眼 máng
 'ngán

A — person

- M. 瞎子 hsia¹-tzǔ
 S. " " hah 'ts
 C. 盲眼 嘅 máng 'ngan ke³

— (bamboo)

- M. 簾子 lien²-tzǔ
 S. " " lien 'ts
 C. 竹簾 chuk, lím*

Blister

- M. 水泡 shui³ p'ao⁴
 S. " " 's p'au³
 C. " " 'shui p'áu

Block (of wood)

- M. 一塊木頭 i¹ k'uai⁴
 mu⁴-t'ou
 S. " " " ih kw'e³
 mok-deu; 木塊 mok
 kw'e³
 C. 木頭 muk₂ t'áu

To — up a road

- M. 擋道兒 tang³ tao⁴ 'rh
 S. 塞住路 suh dzu loo³
 C. 塞路口 sak, lò² 'haú

Blockade

- M. 封禁 fêng¹ chin⁴
 S. " " fong kyung³
 C. " " 'fung kam³

To — a seaport

- M. 封閉海口 fêng¹ pi⁴
 hai³-k'ou³
 S. " " " fong pi³
 'he-k'eu; 封港 fong
 'kaung
 C. 封海口 'fung hoi 'haú

To raise the —

- M. 開封 k'ai¹ fêng¹
 S. " " k'e fong
 C. " " 'hoi 'fung

To run the —

- M. 闖封 ch'uang³ fêng¹
 S. " " ts'aung³ fong
 C. " " 'ch'ong 'fung

Blood

- M. 血 hsieh³
 S. " hyoeh
 C. " hüt₀

Flesh and —

- M. 骨肉 ku³ jou⁴
 S. " " kweh nyok
 C. " " kwat, yuk₂

Blow (sb.)

- M. 打 ta³
 S. " 'tang
 C. " 'tá

Blow, to kill by a*M.* 打死 ta³ ssü³*S.* „ 殺 ‘tang sah*C.* „ 死 ‘ta ‘sz

— (vb.)

M. 吹 ch‘ui¹; (wind) 颳 kua¹*S.* „ ts‘*C.* „ 吹 ch‘ui**To — out***M.* 吹滅 ch‘ui¹ mieh⁴*S.* „ 陰 ts‘ ‘iung*C.* „ 熄 ch‘ui sik,**To — a trumpet***M.* 吹喇叭 ch‘ui¹ la³-pa*S.* „ „ „ ts‘ la-pa*C.* „ 號筒 ch‘ui ho² t‘ung**To — up***M.* 聳壞 hung¹ huai⁴*S.* „ „ hong wa²*C.* 爆發 páu² fát.**Blue***M.* 藍 lan²*S.* „ lan*C.* „ 藍; (of the sky) 青
ts‘ing**Blunt***M.* 鈍 tun⁴*S.* „ dung²*C.* 唔利 ɿm léi²**Board***M.* 板子 pan³-tzü; 木板
mu⁴ pan³*S.* (1) ‘pan; (2) mok ‘pan*C.* (1) ‘pán; (2) muk² ‘pán**Boat***M.* 船 ch‘uan²; 三板 san¹-
pan³*S.* (1) zen; (2) san ‘pan*C.* (1) 舢舨 shün; 艇 t‘eng¹; (2)
sám ‘pán**Ferry —***M.* 渡船 tu⁴ ch‘uan²*S.* 擺渡船 ‘pa doo² zen*C.* 橫水渡 ɿwáng ‘shui tò²***Gun —***M.* 小兵船 hsiao³ ping¹-
ch‘uan²*S.* „ „ „ ‘siao ping zen*C.* 砲艦 p‘áu² lám²**Pilot —***M.* 領江船 ling³ Chiang¹-
ch‘uan²; 引水艇 yin³
shui³ t‘ing³*S.* (1) ‘ling kaung zen*C.* 帶水船 tái² ‘shui ɿshün**To travel by —***M.* 坐船 tso⁴ ch‘uan²*S.* „ „ ‘zoo zen*C.* „ „ 搭
船 táp. ɿshün

Boatmen

M. 水手 shui³ shou³; (crew)

船家 ch'uan² chia¹

S. (head) 老大 'lau da²;

(ordinary) 夥計 'hoo ky¹

C. 艇家 t'eng¹ ka²

Body

M. 身子 shên¹-tzü; 身體
shên¹ t'í³

S. (2) sung t'í

C. (1) shan tsz; (2) shan t'ai

A — of troops

M. 一支兵 i¹ chih¹ ping¹

S. „ „ „ ih ts ping

C. „ 隊 „ yat, tui² ping

— guard

M. 護身兵 hu⁴ shên¹ ping¹

S. 侍衛 z'we²; 親兵 ts'ing
ping

C. 護身兵 wú² shan ping

Boil (ulcer)

M. 瘡 ch'uang¹

S. „ ts'aung

C. „ ch'ong

— (vb.)

M. 煮 chu³

S. 燒 sau

C. 焔 sháp²; (1) 'chü; 煲 pò

Has the water boiled?

M. 水開了沒有 shui³
k'ai¹ lo mei² yu

S. 水阿會開哉 's a
zung k'e tse

C. 水滾未呀 'shui 'kwan
mei² á²

To — rice

M. 煮飯 chu³ fan⁴

S. 燒 „ sau van²

C. 煮 „ 'chü fan²

To — soup

M. 熬湯 ao¹ t'ang¹

S. „ „ au t'aung

C. 煲湯 pò t'ong

Boiler

M. 氣鍋 ch'i⁴ kuo¹

S. 鑊子 wauh-ts; 鑊頭
kwen² deu

C. 鍋 wok²; 爐 lò

Bomb

M. 炸彈 cha⁴ tan⁴

S. „ „ tso³ dan²

C. „ „ chá² tán²*

Bombard (city)

M. 放砲鑊城 fang⁴ p'ao⁴
hung¹ ch'êng²

S. 放砲鑊城 faung³ p'au²
hong dzung

C. 大炮攻城 tái² p'áu²
kung sheng¹

Bone

- M.* 骨頭 *ku*²-t'ou
S. „ „ *kweh deu*
C. „ *kwat,*

Back —

- M.* 脊梁骨 *chi*³-liang *ku*³
S. 背脊骨 *pe tsih kweh*
C. 腰骨 *yífu kwat,*

Collar —

- M.* 琵琶骨 *p'i*²-p'a *ku*³
S. 鎖住 „ 'soo 'dzu *kweh*
C. „ 匙 „ 'so 'shí *kwat,*

Thigh —

- M.* 大腿骨 *ta*⁴ t'ui³ *ku*³
S. „ „ „ *doo*³ 't'e *kweh*
C. „ „ „ *tái*² 't'ui *kwat,*

Book

- M.* 書 *shu*¹
S. „ *su*
C. „ 'shü

Memorandum —

- M.* 簿子 *pu*⁴-tzü
S. „ „ 'boo 'ts
C. 記簿 *kéi*³ pò²*

Account —

- M.* 賬簿子 *chang*⁴ *pu*⁴-tzü
S. „ „ *tsang* 'boo
C. 數 „ *shò*³ pò²*

Book, to read a

- M.* 看書 *k'an*⁴ *shu*¹
S. „ „ *k'oen*³ *su*; 念書
*nyan*³ *su*
C. 睇書 't'ai 'shü; 讀書
*tuk*₂ 'shü

Boots

- M.* 靴子 *hsüeh*¹-tzü
S. „ *hyoo*
C. (real, not ankle-high only)
 靴 *hō*; (ordinary are
 called shoes) 鞋 *hái*

To put on —

- M.* 穿靴 *ch'uan*¹ *hsüeh*¹
S. 着 „ *tsak hyoo*
C. „ „ *chōk*_o 'hō

To take off —

- M.* 脫靴 *t'o*¹ *hsüeh*¹
S. „ „ *t'oe*¹ *hyoo*
C. „ „ *t'üt*_o 'hō

Bootlace

- M.* 靴繩兒 *hsüeh*¹ *shēng*²
 'rh; 靴帶子 *hsüeh*¹
*tai*⁴-tzü
S. 靴帶 *hyoo ta*³
C. 鞋帶 'hái *tái*³

Born

- M.* 生 *shēng*¹
S. „ *sang*
C. „ 'sháng

BorrowM. 借 chieh⁴S. „ tsia³C. „ tse³**Both**M. 兩個 liang³ ko¹

S. „ 个 'liang kuh

C. „ 個 'lōng ko³**— of you**M. 你們倆 ni³-mên lia³S. 妳兩個 na³ 'liang kuhC. 你兩個 'nét 'lōng ko³**Bottle**M. 瓶子 p'ing²-tzũ

S. „ bing

C. 罇 tsun

BottomM. 底 ti³; 底下 ti³ hsia

S. „ 'ti; „ „ 'ti 'au

C. „ 'tai; „ „ 'tai há²**Sank to the —**M. 沉到底下 ch'ên² tao⁴
ti³ hsiaS. „ „ „ 裡 dzung tau³
'ti 'liC. „ „ „ (下) ch'am tò³
'tai (há²)**Boundary**M. 疆界 chiang¹ chieh⁴; 邊
界 pien¹ chieh⁴S. (1) kyang ka³; (2) pien ka³C. (1) 'kōng kái³; 境界 'king
kái³**Beyond the —**M. 邊外 pien¹ wai⁴S. „ „ pien nga³C. 境界外 'king kái³ ngoi³**Bow**M. (weapon) 弓 kung¹; (ship)船頭 ch'uan²-t'ou²;(vb.) 打躬 ta¹ kung¹;作揖 tso⁴ i¹S. (1) kong; (2) zen deu; (3)
'tang kong; (4) tsauh ihC. (1) 'kung; (2) 'shūn 't'áu;
(4) tsok_o yap_o**Bowels**M. 腸子 ch'ang²-tzũ

S. 肚腸 'doo dzang

C. 腸 'ch'ōng

BowlM. 碗 wan³

S. „ 'wen

C. „ 'wún

BoxM. 箱子 hsiang¹-tzũ

S. „ „ siang 'ts

C. „ 'sōng

Box, small*M.* 盒子 ho²-tzǔ*S.* 匣子 'ah 'ts*C.* 盒(仔) hop₂ ('tsai); 小箱 'siú cǝng**To —***M.* 打拳頭 ta³ ch'üan²-t'ou*S.* „ „ „ 'tang joen deu*C.* 拳打 k'ün 'tá**Boy***M.* 孩子 hai²-tzǔ*S.* 小国 'siau noen*C.* 男仔 nám 'tsai**School —***M.* 學生 hsüeh² shêng¹*S.* „ „ 'auh sang*C.* „ „ hok₂ sháng**— (servant)***M.* 跟班的 kên¹-pan¹-ti*S.* 細者 si³-tse*C.* 事仔 sz² 'tsai**Braces***M.* 帶子 tai⁴-tzǔ*S.* „ „ ta³ 'ts; 攀帶 p'an³ ta³*C.* 過膊褲帶 kwo³ pok. fú tái**Brackish***M.* 鹹味的 hsien² wei⁴ ti*S.* „ „ 道 'an mi³ dau³*C.* 水鹹味 'shui chám méi²**Brains***M.* 腦子 nao³-tzǔ*S.* „ „ 'nau 'ts*C.* „ „ 漿 'nò cǝng**Bran***M.* 麩子 fu¹-tzǔ*S.* „ „ 皮 foo bi*C.* 麥糠 mak₂ chong**Brandy***M.* 布蘭的酒 pu-lan-ti chiu³*S.* „ „ „ „ poo³-lan-di 'tsieu*C.* 罷欄地酒 pá² lán² téi² 'tsau**Brass***M.* 黃銅 huang² t'ung²*S.* „ „ waung dong*C.* „ „ cǝwong t'ung**Brave***M.* 勇 yung³; 大膽子 ta⁴ tan³-tzǔ*S.* (i) 'iong; 膽大 'tan doo³*C.* (i) 'yung

To brave death*M.* 昌死 mao⁴ ssü³*S.* „ „ mau³ 'si*C.* „ „ mò² 'sz**Brazier (man)***M.* 銅匠 t'ung² Chiang⁴*S.* „ „ dong ziang³*C.* „ „ t'ung tsöng^{2*}; 打

銅佬 'tá t'ung 'lò

Charcoal —*M.* 炭爐 t'an⁴ lu²*S.* „ „ 盆 t'an³ bung*C.* „ „ 斗 t'an³ 'tau**Bread (foreign)***M.* 麵包 mien⁴-pao¹*S.* „ „ mien³ pau*C.* „ „ mín² páu**— (native)***M.* 饅頭 man²-t'ou*S.* „ „ men deu*C.* 麵 „ mín² t'au**Break***M.* 破 p'o⁴; 斷 tuan⁴; 折
chê³*S.* (1) p'oo³; (2) 'doen; 打破
'tang p'oo³*C.* 打爛 'tá lán²**To — an oath***M.* 背誓 pei⁴ shih⁴*S.* „ „ pe³ z'*C.* „ „ púi³ shai²**To break open***M.* 打開 ta³ k'ai¹*S.* „ „ 'tang k'e*C.* „ „ 'tá hoi; 打爛
'tá lán²**To — the ranks***M.* 破陣 p'o⁴ chên⁴*S.* „ „ p'oo³ dzung³*C.* „ „ p'o³ chan³**To — to pieces***M.* 打碎 ta³ sui⁴*S.* „ „ 'tang se³*C.* „ „ 'tá sui³**Breakfast***M.* 早飯 tsao³ fan⁴*S.* „ „ 'tsau van³*C.* „ „ 'tsò fán²; 早餐
'tsò 'ts'an^{*}**Breath***M.* 氣 ch'i⁴; 口氣 k'ou³-ch'i⁴*S.* „ chi³; „ „ 'k'eu chi³*C.* „ héi³; „ „ 'haú héi³**Breathe***M.* 出氣 ch'u¹ ch'i⁴*S.* 呼吸 hoo hyih; 透氣
t'eu³ chi³*C.* „ „ 'fú k'ap,**Breech (gun)***M.* 後膛 hou⁴ t'ang²*S.* „ „ 'eu daung*C.* „ „ haú² t'ong

Breeze*M.* 風 fêng¹*S.* „ fong*C.* „ fung**A favourable —***M.* 順風 shun⁴ fêng¹*S.* „ „ zung³ fong*C.* „ „ shun² fung**Brick***M.* 磚頭 chuan¹-t'ou*S.* „ „ tsen deu*C.* „ „ chün**Bridge***M.* 橋 ch'iao²*S.* „ jau*C.* „ k'íu**A floating —***M.* 浮橋 fu² ch'iao²*S.* „ „ veu jau*C.* „ „ faú k'íu**A suspension —***M.* 挂橋 kua⁴ ch'iao²*S.* „ „ kwo³ jau*C.* „ „ kwá k'íu**Bridle***M.* 嚮子 chiao²-tzü*S.* „ „ zia³ ts*C.* 韁 kōng**Brigade***M.* 聯隊 lien² tui⁴*S.* „ „ lien de³*C.* 鎮標 chan³ p'ú**Brigadier-general***M.* 協都統 hsieh-tu¹-t'ung³;陸軍少將 lu⁴ chünshao⁴ Chiang¹; 鎮台chên⁴-t'ai*S.* (1) hyih tok t'ong; (2) lok
kyuin 'sau tsiang*C.* (2) luk² kwan 'shú tsōng;
(3) chan³ t'oi**Brigands***M.* 賊匪 tsei² fei³; 強盜ch'iang² tao⁴*S.* (1) zuh fi; (2) jang dau³*C.* (1) ts'ak² 'féi; 盜賊 tò²
ts'ák²***Bright***M.* 亮 liang⁴; 光明 kuang¹ming²; 光亮 kuang¹liang⁴*S.* 明 ming; (2) kwaung ming;明亮 ming liang³*C.* 光 kwong; (2) kwong
ming**Bring***M.* 拿...來 na² lai²; 帶來 tai⁴ lai²*S.* (1) nau le; (2) ta³ le*C.* 揸 ning; 拈 ním; 帶 tái

— the book here

M. 拿書來 na² shu¹ lai²*S.* „ „ „ nau su le*C.* 揸個部書嚟 ning
'ko pò² shü lai

Bring back

- M.* 拿回來 na² hui² lai²
S. „ „ „ nau we le
C. 擰翻嚟 ɲing fán ɲai

— away

- M.* 帶去 tai⁴ ch'ü⁴
S. „ „ ta' chi²
C. „ „ tái³ hui²

Broad

- M.* 寬 k'uan¹
S. 濶 kw'eh
C. 闊 fút.

Five feet —

- M.* 五尺寬 wu³ ch'ih³ k'uan¹
S. „ „ 濶 'ng ts'ak kw'eh
C. „ „ 闊 ɲg ch'ek. fút.

The river is very —

- M.* 河很寬 ho² hên³ k'uan¹
S. „ 非常濶 'oo fi dzang kw'eh
C. „ 好闊 ɲo ɲò fút.

Broken

- M.* 破了 p'o⁴ lo
S. 斷哉 'doen tse
C. 爛阻 lán² 'cho

— asunder

- M.* 折斷了 chê² tuan⁴ lo
S. „ „ „ ts'ak 'doen liau
C. „ „ chít. t'ün

Brother

- M.* 弟兄 ti⁴ hsiung
S. „ „ 'di hyong
C. 兄弟 ɲing tai² (also means cousin and clansman)

Elder —

- M.* 哥哥 ko¹ ko
S. 阿 „ aḱ koo
C. 大佬 tái² ɲò

Younger —

- M.* 兄弟 hsiung¹ ti
S. „ „ hyong-'di; 弟弟 'di 'di
C. 細佬 sai² ɲò

Brown

- M.* 棕色 tsung¹ sê⁴; 土色 t'u³ sê⁴
S. (1) tsong suh
C. (1) ɲsung shik,

Bruise

- M.* 青血跡 ch'ing¹ hsieh^h chi⁴
S. 傷痕 saung 'ung
C. 瘀傷 yü² ɲshōng

Brush

- M.* 刷子 shua¹-tzu
S. „ seh
C. 擦 ts'át.

Bull

- M. 公牛 kung¹ niu²
 S. 雄 „ yong nyeu
 C. 牛公 ngaú kung

Bullet

- M. 彈子 tan⁴-tzü; 槍子
 兒 ch'iang¹ tzü³ 'rh
 S. (1) dan³ 'ts
 C. (1) tán² 'tsz

Bullock

- M. 駟牛 shan¹ niu²
 S. „ „ san nyeu
 C. „ „ shín³ ngaú

Buoy

- M. 浮樁 fu² chuang¹; 浮
 標 fu² piao¹
 S. (2) veu piau
 C. 泡 p'ò

Life —

- M. 救命圈 chiu⁴ ming²
 ch'üan¹
 S. „ „ „ kyeu³ ming³
 choen
 C. „ 生 „ káu³. sháng
 hün

Burial

- M. 喪事 sang¹ shih⁴
 S. „ „ saung z³
 C. „ „ song sz²; 埋葬
 mái tsong³

Burial rites

- M. 喪禮 sang¹ li³
 S. „ „ saung 'li
 C. „ „ song 'lai

Burmah

- M. 緬甸 mien³ tien⁴
 S. „ „ mien dien
 C. „ „ mín tín²

Burn

- M. 燒 shao¹; 燒傷 shao¹
 shang¹
 S. (1) sau; 火傷 hoo saung
 C. (1) shíú

To — incense

- M. 燒香 shao¹ hsiang¹
 S. „ „ sau hyang
 C. „ „ shíú hōng (or
 hōng)

Bury

- M. 葬埋 tsang⁴ mai²
 S. 埋葬 ma tsaung³; 落葬
 lauh tsaung³
 C. 葬埋 tsong³ mái

Bush

- M. 小樹 hsiao³ shu⁴
 S. „ „ 'siau zu³
 C. „ „ 'sfú shü²

Business

- M. 事 shih⁴; 事情 shih⁴-
 ch'ing; 事務 shih⁴-wu
 S. 事體 z³ 'ti; 生意 sang i³
 C. (1) sz²; 事幹 sz² kon³

Business, important

M. 要緊的事 yao⁴-chin³
ti shih⁴

S. „ „ 事體 iau³ 'kyung
z² 't'i

C. 緊要事 'kan yíú³ sz²

— is bad

M. 事情不好 shih⁴-ch'ing
pu⁴ hao³

S. „ „ 勿 „ z² dzing veh
'hau

C. 生意好淡 sháng⁴ yí²
'hò tám²

An extensive —

M. 大生意 ta⁴ shêng¹-i⁴

S. „ „ „ doo³ sang i²

C. „ „ „ tái² sháng yí²

To manage —

M. 管事 kuan³ shih⁴

S. „ „ 'kwen z²

C. (辦)理事 (pán²) 'léi sz²

Busy

M. 有事 yu³ shih⁴; 忙
mang²

S. 有事 'yeu z²; (2) maung

C. „ „ 'yaú sz²

Are you — ?

M. 忙不忙 mang² pu mang²

S. „ 勿 „ maung veh
maung

C. 你得閒唔得閒呢
'néi tak, 'hán ɿm tak, 'hán
ɿni

Very busy

M. 忙得很 mang² tê hên³

S. „ „ 了勿得 maung
tuh liau 'veh tuh

C. 事幹多 sz² kon³ to

But

M. 但 tan⁴; 可 k'o³

S. „ 是 dan³ 'z

C. „ tán²

— I fear

M. 只怕 chih³ p'a⁴

S. „ „ tsuh p'o³

C. 但我怕 tán² 'ngo p'a⁴

Not only . . . — also

M. 不但 . . . 而且 pu⁴ tan⁴
. . . erh² ch'ieh³

S. 勿但 . . . 而且 veh dan³
. . . r 'ts'ia

C. 非獨 . . . 而且 fēi tuk²
. . . yí 'ch'e

Butcher

M. 賣肉的 mai⁴ jou⁴ ti;
宰牛的 tsai³ niu² ti

S. 賣肉个 ma² nyok kuh;
殺牛个 sah nyeu kuh

C. 屠夫 t'ò fú; 賣牛肉
嘅 ma² 'ngau yuk² ke²

Butter

M. 黃油 huang² yu²; 奶油
nai³ yu²

S. 牛油 nyeu yeu; (2) 'na yeu

C. „ „ 'ngau yaú

Button

M. 鈕子 niu³-tzu

S. „ „ 'nyeu 'ts; 鈕頭
'nyeu deu

C. 鈕 'naú

— of rank

M. 頂戴 ting³-tai⁴

S. „ „ 子 'ting 'ts

C. „ „ 'teng⁺

To —

M. 扣上鈕子 k'ou⁴-shang
niu³-tzu

S. „ „ „ 頭 k'eu³ zaung²
'nyeu deu

C. „ „ 鈕 k'au³ 'naú

Buy

M. 買 mai³

S. „ „ 'ma

C. „ „ 'mái

By

M. 以 i³; 從 ts'ung²; 用
yung⁴; 由 yu²

S. (2) dzong; (3) yong²; (4) yeu

C. (1) yí; (2) ts'ung; (3) yung²;
(4) yaú; 打 'tá

— no means

M. 千萬不 ch'ien¹ wan⁴ pu

S. 並非 bing² fi; 決勿
kyoeh 'veh

C. 斷唔係 tün² 'm hai²

— this method

M. 用這個法子 yung⁴
chê⁴-ko fa²-tzu

S. 用第个法子 yong²
di² kuh fa² 'ts

C. 用此法子 yung² 'ts'z
fát² 'tsz

He has gone —

M. 他過去了 t'a¹ kuo⁴
ch'ü⁴ lo

S. 伊過去哉 yi koo³ chi²
tse

C. 佢經過去咯 k'ui
'king kwo³ hui² lo²

— the river side

M. 在河邊 tsai⁴ ho² pien¹

S. „ „ „ 'dze 'oo pien

C. „ „ „ tsoi² 'ho 'pín

To sell — the pound

M. 論斤賣 lun⁴ chin¹ mai⁴

S. „ „ „ lung³ kyung ma²

C. 斷磅 „ tün² pong² mái²

— chance

M. 偶然 ou³-jan²; 可巧
k'o³ ch'iao³

S. „ „ 'ngeu zen

C. „ „ 'ngo yín

One — one

M. 一 — i¹ i¹; 一個 —
個 i ko i ko

S. 一个一个 ih kuh ih kuh

C. 逐一 chuk² yat²

Cabbage*M.* 白菜 *pai*² *ts'ai*⁴*S.* „ „ *bak ts'e*³*C.* (native) 白菜 *pák*₂ *ts'oi*²;
(foreign) 椰菜 *ye ts'oi*²**Cable***M.* 纜 *lan*⁴; (telegraph) 海線
*hai*³ *hsien*⁴*S.* (1) *lan*³; (2) *'he sien*²*C.* (1) *lám*²; 海纜 *hoi lám*²**Cake***M.* 餅 *ping*³; 糕 *kao*¹*S.* „ *'ping*; „ *kau**C.* „ *'peng*[†]**Calendar***M.* (Chinese) 皇曆 *huang*² *li*⁴;
(Western) 西曆 *hsi*¹ *li*⁴*S.* (Chinese) (1) *waung lih*;
(Western) (2) *si lih**C.* (Chinese) 華曆 *wa*₂ *lik*₂;
(Western) (2) *sai lik*₂**Call***M.* 叫 *chiao*⁴; 喊 *han*³*S.* „ *kyau*³; „ *han*³*C.* „ *kíú*²— *him here**M.* 叫他來 *chiao*⁴ *t'a*¹ *lai*²*S.* „ 伊 „ *kyau*³ *yi le**C.* „ 佢嚟 *kíú*² *ek'ui lai***Call over names***M.* 點名 *tien*³ *ming*²*S.* „ „ *tien ming**C.* „ „ *'tím mēng*[†]**To — upon (visit)***M.* 拜 *pai*⁴*S.* „ 望 *pa*³ *maung*²*C.* 探 *t'am*²**What is it called?***M.* 叫甚麼 *chiao*⁴ *shê(n)*²-
*mo**S.* „ 啥 *kyau*³ *sa*²*C.* „ 乜名 *kíú*² *mat*,
mēng[†]**Calm***M.* 安靜 *an*¹ *ching*; 平安
*p'ing*² *an**S.* (1) *oen 'zing*; 平靜 *bing*
*'zing**C.* (1) *on tsing*²; (2) *p'ing on***Camp***M.* 營盤 *ying*² *p'an*; 兵營
*ping*¹ *ying*²*S.* (1) *yung ben*; (2) *ping yung**C.* (1) *ying p'ún***To pitch a —***M.* 割營 *cha*¹ *ying*²*S.* „ „ *tsah yung**C.* „ „ *cháp_o ying*

Can. See **Able**.

— it be done?

M. 可 不 可 k'o³ pu k'o³;

行 不 行 hsing² pu
hsing³

S. 行 勿 行 'ang 'veh 'ang;

可 以 勿 可 以 'k'au
'i 'veh 'k'au 'i

C. 做得唔做得呢 tsò²
tak, ɿm tsò² tak, ɿni?

It — be done

M. 可 以 做 k'o³-i³ tso⁴

S. „ „ „ 'k'au 'i tsoo³

C. 做 得 tsò² tak,

Canal

M. 水 道 shui³ tao⁴; 溝 kou¹

S. (1) 's dau²; (2) keu

C. 水 涌 'shui ɿch'ung

— with locks

M. 閘 河 cha¹ ho²

S. „ „ „ zah 'oo

C. „ „ „ chap² ɿho

The Grand —

M. 運 糧 河 yün⁴ liang ho²;

漕 運 河 ts'ao² yün ho²

S. (1) yuin² liang 'oo; 運 河

yuin² 'oo; 千 里 河
ts'ien li 'oo

C. 運 河 wan² ɿho

Candle

M. 蠟 la⁴; 燭 chu²

S. „ „ 燭 lah tsok

C. (2) chuk³; 蠟 燭 láp² chuk³,

Light the —

M. 點 蠟 tien³ la⁴

S. „ „ „ 燭 tien lah tsok

C. „ „ „ „ ɿtím láp² chuk³,

— stick

M. 蠟 臺 la⁴ t'ai²

S. „ „ „ lah de

C. 燭 „ „ chuk³ ɿt'oi*

Cane

M. 籐 子 t'êng²-tzǔ

S. „ „ „ dung

C. „ „ „ ɿt'ang

— chair

M. 籐 椅 子 t'êng² i³-tzǔ

S. „ „ „ „ dung iui 'ts

C. „ „ „ „ ɿt'ang 'yí

Sugar —

M. 甘 蔗 kan¹-chê

S. „ „ „ ken tso³

C. 蔗 che³

Cangue

M. 枷 chia¹

S. „ „ „ ka

C. „ „ „ ɿká

Cangue, wear the*M.* 扛枷 k'ang² chia¹; 枷號 chia¹ hao⁴*S.* 帶枷 ta³ ka*C.* 擔枷 tām ká**Cannon***M.* 炮 p'ao⁴*S.* „ p'au²*C.* „ p'áu²**— ball***M.* 炮子兒 p'ao⁴ tzǔ³ 'rh*S.* „ „ p'au² 'ts*C.* „ „ p'áu² 'tsz; 炮碼
p'áu² 'má²**To fire a —***M.* 放炮 fang⁴ p'ao⁴*S.* „ „ faung² p'au²*C.* „ „ fong² p'áu²; 燒炮
shíu p'áu²**Cap***M.* 帽子 mao⁴-tzǔ*S.* „ „ mau² 'ts*C.* „ 仔 mò²* 'tsai; 小帽
'sú mò²***Wear a —***M.* 戴帽子 tai⁴ mao⁴-tzǔ*S.* 帶 „ „ ta³ mau² 'ts*C.* 戴小帽 (or 帽仔)
tái² 'sú mò²* (or mò²*
'tsai)**Capital (money)***M.* 本錢 pên³ ch'ien*S.* „ „ 'pung dzien*C.* „ „ 'pún t'sín***— (city)***M.* 京都 ching¹ tu¹; 京城
ching¹ ch'êng²*S.* (2) kyung dzung*C.* (1) k'ing t'ò**Gone to the — (Peking)***M.* 上京去 shang⁴ ching¹
ch'ü⁴*S.* 進京 tsing² kyung*C.* 上京 shōng k'ing**— punishment***M.* 正法 chêng⁴ fa³*S.* 死刑 'si iung*C.* 正法 ching² fát.**Capitulate***M.* 投降 t'ou² hsiang²*S.* „ „ deu 'aung*C.* „ „ t'au hong**Captain (of a ship)***M.* 船主 ch'uan² chu³*S.* „ „ zen 'tsu*C.* „ „ shün 'chü

Captain (in the army)

M. 守備 shou³-pei⁴; 陸軍
上尉 lu⁴ chün¹ shang⁴
wei⁴

S. (1) 'seu be³; (2) lok kyuin
zaung wei

C. (1st) 都司 tò sz; (2nd)
(1) 'shau péi²; 隊官 tui²
kwún

— (in the navy)

M. 水師統領 shui³-shih¹
t'ung¹-ling³

S. " " " " 'soe s t'ong
ling

C. " " 參將 'shui sz
ts'ám tsong²

Capture

M. 拿獲 na² huo⁴

S. 拿住 nau dzu²; 捉到
tsauh tau²

C. 拿獲 ná wok²

To — a thief

M. 獲賊 huo⁴ tsei²

S. 捉 " tsauh zuh

C. " " chuk_o ts'ák₂*

Card (visiting)

M. 名片 ming² p'ien⁴; 片
子 p'ien⁴-tzü

S. (1) ming p'ien²; (2) p'ien²
'ts; 拜帖 pa² t'ih

C. (名)帖 (ming) t'ip_o*; 拜
帖 'pái t'ip_o

Careful

M. 仔細 tzü³ hsi⁴; 謹慎
chin³ shên⁴

S. (1) 'ts si²; (2) 'kyung zung²

C. (1) 'tsz sai²; (2) 'kan shan²

Be —

M. 小心 hsiao³ hsin¹

S. " " 'siau sing; 當心
taung sing

C. " " 'sfú sam

Careless

M. 草率 ts'ao³ shuai⁴

S. 勿留心 'veh lieu sing;

大意 da² i²

C. 有小心 'mò 'sfú sam

Cargo

M. 船貨 ch'uan² huo⁴

S. " " sen hoo²

C. " " (shün) fo²

To discharge —

M. 起貨 ch'i³ huo⁴

S. " " 'chi hoo²

C. " " 'héi fo²

To take in —

M. 下貨 hsia⁴ huo⁴

S. " " 'au hoo²

C. 落 " lok₂ fo²

— certificate

M. 總單 tsung³ tan

S. " " 'tsong tan

C. " " 'tsung tán

Cargo boat*M.* 駁船 po² ch'uan²*S.* „ „ pok zen*C.* 西瓜扁 ɛsai ɛkwá 'pín;盤艇 ɛp'ún t'eng⁺**Carpenter***M.* 木匠 mu⁴ chiang*S.* „ „ mok ziang²*C.* „ „ muk₂ tsöng²*; 闢木佬 tau² muk₂ ʔò**Carpet***M.* 地毯 ti⁴ t'an³*S.* „ „ di t'an*C.* „ „ 氈 téi² ɔchín**Carry**

—— (on a pole)

M. 挑 t'iao¹; 擔 tan¹; (by two men) 抬 t'ai²*S.* (1) t'iau; (3) de; 擡 jien*C.* (2) ɛtám; (3) ɛt'oi

—— (on the back)

M. 背上 pei⁴-shang; (animals) 馱 t'o²*S.* „ „ pe²*C.* 𠵹 ɛme

—— (on the shoulder)

M. 扛 k'ang²*S.* „ „ kaung*C.* 托 t'ok.**Carry (in the arms)***M.* 抱 pao⁴*S.* „ „ 'bau*C.* „ „ 'p'ò

—— (about one)

M. 帶 tai⁴*S.* „ „ ta²*C.* „ „ 埋身上 tái² ɛmái
ɛshan shöng²**To — off by force***M.* 搶去 ch'iang³ ch'ü⁴*S.* „ „ 'ts'iang chi²*C.* „ „ 'ts'öng hui²**To — out an affair***M.* 成事 ch'êng² shih⁴*S.* „ „ dzung z²*C.* „ „ ɛshing sz²**To — on***M.* 照常不歇 chao⁴ ch'ang²
pu hsieh¹*S.* „ „ 做去 tsau² dzang
tsoo² chi²*C.* „ „ 不歇嚟做 ch'ü²
shöng² pat, hít, ɛlai tsò²**Cart***M.* 車 ch'ê¹*S.* „ „ ts'o*C.* „ „ ɛch'e

Carter

- M.* 車夫 ch'ê¹ fu¹; 趕車的 kan³-ch'ê¹-ti
S. „ „ t'so foo
C. „ „ çh'e çú

Cartridge

- M.* 火藥包子 huo³-yao⁴ pao¹-tzü
S. „ „ „ 'hoo yak pau
C. „ „ „ 子 'fo yök₂ páu 'tsz

Cash

- M.* 錢 ch'ien²
S. „ „ dien
C. „ „ çts'in*; 銀 ngan*

Copper —

- M.* 銅錢 t'ung² ch'ien²
S. „ „ dong dien
C. „ „ çt'ung çts'in*

A string of —

- M.* 一吊錢 i¹ tiao⁴ ch'ien²;
 一串錢 i ch'uan⁴ ch'ien²
S. „ „ „ ih ts'en³ dien
C. (1) yat, tiú² çts'in*; (2) yat, ch'ün² çts'in*

Castle

- M.* 城堡 ch'êng² pao³
S. „ „ dzung pau
C. „ „ sheng+ 'pò

Cat

- M.* 貓 mao¹
S. „ „ mau
C. „ „ máu

Catch

- M.* 拿住 na² chu⁴
S. „ „ „ nau dzu³; 捉拿 tsauh nau
C. 捉 chuk_o

To — up (overtake)

- M.* 趕上 kan³ shang⁴
S. „ „ 到 'koen tau³; 追趕 tsoe 'koen
C. „ „ 'kon tò'

Cattle

- M.* 牲口 shêng¹ k'ou
S. 中牲 tsong sang
C. 牲口 sháng+ 'haú

A drove of —

- M.* 一群牲口 i¹ ch'ün² shêng¹ k'ou
S. „ „ „ 中牲 ih juin tsong sang
C. „ „ „ 畜生 yat, çk'wan chuk, sháng

Catty

- M.* 斤 chin¹
S. „ „ kyung
C. „ „ kan

Cause*M.* 緣故 yüan² ku*S.* „ „ yoen koo²*C.* „ „ yün kwú²**For this —***M.* 因此 yin¹ tz'u³*S.* „ „ iung 'ts'*C.* „ „ yan 'ts'z**Without —***M.* 無故 wu² ku⁴*S.* „ 緣無故 m yoen
m koo²*C.* „ 故 mò kwú²**— (vb.)***M.* 叫 chiao⁴; 使 shih; 令
ling⁴*S.* (2) s²; 撥 peh; 使得 s² tuh*C.* (2) 'shai; (3) ling²**To — disorder***M.* 生亂 shêng¹ lüan⁴*S.* „ „ sang loen²*C.* „ „ sháng† lün²**Cavalry***M.* 馬兵 ma³ ping¹; 馬隊
ma³ tui⁴*S.* (1) 'mo ping; (2) 'mo de²*C.* (1) 'má ping; (2) 'má tui²**A body of —***M.* 一班馬兵 i¹ pan¹ ma³
ping*S.* „ 群 „ „ ih juin 'mo
ping*C.* 一班馬兵 yat, pán 'má
ping**Cave***M.* 洞子 tung⁴-tzü*S.* 山洞 san dong²*C.* „ „ shán tung²**Ceiling***M.* 頂棚 ting³ p'êng²*S.* 天花板 t'ien hwo 'pan*C.* „ „ „ t'ín fá 'pán**Cellar***M.* 地窖 ti⁴ chiao⁴; 地窖
子 ti⁴ yin⁴-tzü*S.* (1) di² kyau²*C.* 土庫 t'ò fú²**Cemetery***M.* 墳院 fên² yüan⁴; 墳地
fên² ti⁴*S.* (1) vung yoen; (2) vung di²*C.* (2) fan téi²; 墳場 fan
ch'öng**Cent (one)***M.* 一分錢 i¹ fên¹ ch'ien²*S.* „ „ ih fung*C.* „ 個仙(士) yat, ko² s'ín
(sz^{2*})**10 cents***M.* 一毛錢 i¹ mao² ch'ien²*S.* „ 角子 ih kauh 'ts*C.* „ 毫 yat, hò²

25 cents ($\frac{1}{4}$ dollar)

M. 二角五分 êrh² chiao³
wu³ fên¹

S. 廿五分 nyan³ 'ng fung

C. 二毫半 yf² hò² pún²; 二
十五仙 yf² shap² 'ng
sín; 一 𠵿 yat, kwat,

Five per —

M. 值百抽五 chih² po²
ch'ou¹ wu³

S. 一 „ „ „ ih pak ts'eu
'ng

C. 九五扣 'kau² 'ng k'au²

Centre

M. 中 chung; 中間兒
chung¹ chie(n)⁴ 'rh

S. „ 心 tsong sing

C. „ ,chúng; 中央 ,chung
yöng

— of a river

M. 河心 ho² hsin¹

S. „ „ 'oo sing

C. „ „ ,ho sam; 河中
,ho ,chung

Certain

M. 一定 i¹ ting⁴; 必定的
pi⁴ ting⁴ ti

S. (1) ih ding²; 必定个 pih
ding² kuh

C. (1) (yat,) ting²; 必定 pít,
ting²

A certain day

M. 某日 mou³ jih⁴

S. „ „ 'meu nyih

C. „ „ 'maú yat₂

Certainly

M. 必定 pi⁴ ting⁴; 果然
kuo³ jan²

S. (1) pih ding²; (2) 'koo zen

C. 定喇 ting²* ,lá

— not

M. 斷不可 tuan⁴ pu k'o³

S. 一定勿是 ih ding² 'veh 'z

C. 實唔係 shat₂ 'm hai²

Chain

M. 鏈 lien²; 鎖鏈子 so³
lien²-tzü

S. 鍊 lien

C. (1) lín²*

— him up

M. 鎖住他 so³ chu⁴ t'a¹

S. „ „ 伊 'soo dzu³ yi

C. 俾條鍊鎖住佢 'péi
' ,t'fú lín²* 'so chü² 'k'ui

Chair

M. 椅子 i³-tzü

S. „ „ iui³ 'ts

C. „ 'yí

Sedan —

M. 轎子 chiao⁴-tzü

S. „ „ jau³ 'ts

C. „ ,kíú²*

Chair bearer*M.* 轎夫 chiao' fu*S.* „ „ jau' foo*C.* „ „ k'ú' * ǒfú**Change***M.* 改 kai³; 換 huan⁴*S.* „ 'ke; „ wen²; 變
pien²*C.* „ 'koi; „ wún²; „ pín²

— clothes

M. 換衣服 huan⁴ i' fu*S.* „ „ 裳 wen² i zaung*C.* „ „ 服 wún² yí fuk²

— one's mind

M. 改主意 kai³ chu²-i*S.* „ „ „ 'ke 'tsu i'*C.* 心事改變 ǎsam sz² 'koi
pín²**Character (word)***M.* 字 tzu⁴*S.* „ z'*C.* „ tsz²**Charcoal***M.* 炭 t'an⁴*S.* „ t'an²*C.* 柴炭 ǎch'ái (or ǎshái) t'án²**Charge (attack)***M.* 衝前打 ch'ung¹ ch'ien²
ta³*S.* „ „ „ ts'ong zien 'tang*C.* „ „ „ ǎch'ung ǎts'in 'lá**Charge (entrust)***M.* 寄託 chi⁴ t'o¹*S.* 託 t'auh*C.* 付託 fú² t'ok²

— (accuse)

M. 告 kao⁴; 告狀 kao⁴
chuang⁴*S.* (1) kau²; (2) kau² zaung²*C.* (1) kò²**Cheap***M.* 便宜 p'ien²-i; 賤 chien⁴*S.* „ „ bien² nyi; „ dzien²*C.* 平 ǎp'eng⁴**Cheek***M.* 腮頰 sai¹-chia*S.* 面 „ mien² kyih*C.* 腮 „ ǎsoi káp²**Cheese***M.* 奶餅 nai³ ping³*S.* „ „ 'na 'ping*C.* 牛奶餅 ngáu 'nái 'peng⁴**Chicken***M.* 小鷄 [hsiao³ chi¹*S.* „ „ 'siau kyí*C.* 鷄仔 kai 'tsai**Chief***M.* (head) 頭目 t'ou²-mu;(first) 第一 ti⁴ i'

Chief (continued)

S. (head) 頭目 deu mok;
(first) 頭一个 deu ih
kuh; (2) di² ih

C. (1) t'áu muk₂; 頭人 t'áu
yan; (2) tai² yat,

— of a society

M. 會首 hui⁴ shou³; 會主
hui⁴ chu³

S. „ „ we³ 'seu

C. „ „ wú² 'shaú

Children

M. 孩子們 hai²-tzǔ mên;
兒女 erh² nǚ³

S. 小囡 'siau noen; (2) r
'nyui

C. 細蚊仔 sai² o_{man} 'tsai

Chimney

M. 烟筒 yen¹ t'ung

S. „ 囟 ien ts'ong

C. „ 通 yín t'ung

Chin

M. 下巴頰兒 hsia⁴ pa
ko¹'rh

S. „ „ 'au bo

C. „ 爬 há² p'á

China

M. 中國 chung¹ kuo

S. „ „ tsong kok

C. „ „ chung kwok_o

Chinese

M. 中國人 chung¹ kuo¹ jên²;

漢人 han⁴ jên²

S. (1) tsong kok nyung; (2)
hoen² nyung

C. (1) chung kwok_o yan; 唐
人 t'ong yan

Cholera

M. 瘧亂 huo⁴ luan⁴

S. „ „ hauh loen³

C. „ „ 症 fok_o lün² ching²

Choose

M. 揀選 chien³ hsüan³; 挑
t'iao¹

S. (1) 'kan 'sien; (2) t'iau

C. (1) 'kán 'sün

Chopsticks

M. 筷子 k'uai⁴-tzǔ

S. „ kw'an

C. 快子 fái² 'tsz

Christianity (R. C.)

M. 天主教 t'ien¹-chu³ chiao⁴

S. „ „ „ t'ien 'tsu kyau²

C. „ „ „ t'ín 'chü káu²

— (Protestant)

M. 耶穌教 yeh³-su¹ chiao⁴

S. „ „ „ ya soo kyau²

C. „ „ „ ye² sò káu²

Church

M. 禮拜堂 li³-pai⁴ t'ang²;
 天主堂 t'ien¹-chu³
 t'ang²

S. (1) 'li pa² daung; (2) t'ien
 'tsu daung

C. (1) 'lai pái² t'ong; (2) t'ín
 'chü t'ong

— (Christian body)

M. 教會 chiao⁴ hui⁴

S. „ „ kyau² we²

C. „ „ káu² wú²

Circle

M. 圓圈 yüan² ch'üan¹

S. „ „ yoen choen

C. 圈 chün

Diameter of a —

M. 圓徑 yüan² ching⁴

S. „ „ yoen 'kyung

C. „ „ yün king²

Circumstances

M. 光景 kuang¹-ching

S. „ „ kwaung²kyung; 情
 形 dzing yung

C. „ „ kwong²king

Act according to —

M. 按光景做 an⁴ kuang¹-
 ching³ tso⁴

S. 看情形做 k'oen² dzing
 yung tsoo³

C. (1) on² kwong²king tsò²; 照
 景做 chfú² king tsò²

City

M. 城 ch'êng²

S. „ dzung

C. „ sheng⁺

District —

M. 縣城 hsien⁴ ch'êng²

S. „ „ yoen² dzung

C. „ „ yün² sheng⁺

Prefectural —

M. 府城 fu³ ch'êng²

S. „ „ 'foo dzung

C. „ „ 'fú sheng⁺

Provincial —

M. 省城 shêng³ ch'êng²

S. „ „ 'sang dzung

C. „ „ 'sháng sheng⁺

Clean

M. 乾淨 kan¹-ching

S. „ „ koen zing²

C. „ „ kon tseng²+

To make —

M. 弄乾淨 nung⁴ kan¹-
 ching

S. „ „ „ long² koen
 zing²

C. 整 „ „ 'ching kon
 tseng²+

Clear

M. 清 ch'ing¹; 明白 ming²
 pai

S. „ ts'ing; 清楚 ts'ing
 ts'oo²

C. „ ts'ing; (2) ming

Clear sky*M.* 天晴 t'ien¹ ch'ing²*S.* „ „ t'ien dzing*C.* „ „ t'ín ts'ing**To — the way***M.* 開路 k'ai¹ lu⁴; 喝道
ho¹ tao⁴*S.* (1) k'e loo³; (2) hoeh 'dau*C.* (1) ɕhoi lò²; (2) hot_o tò²**Climate***M.* 水土 shui³-t'u³*S.* „ „ 's 't'oo*C.* „ „ 'shui 't'ò**Climb***M.* 爬 p'a²*S.* „ „ bo*C.* 擒 ɕk'am**To — a tree***M.* 扒樹 p'a² shu⁴*S.* „ „ „ bo zu³*C.* 擒(上)樹 ɕk'am ('shōng)
shū²**Clock***M.* 鐘 chung¹*S.* „ „ tsong*C.* „ „ ɕchung**Three o'clock***M.* 三點鐘 san¹ tien³ chung¹*S.* „ „ „ san 'tien tsong*C.* „ „ „ ɕám 'tím ɕchung**Close***M.* 關 kuan¹*S.* „ „ kwan*C.* „ „ ɕkwán**To — the door***M.* 關門 kuan¹ men²*S.* „ „ „ kwan mung*C.* „ „ ɕkwán ɕmún; 掩
埋門 'yím ɕmái ɕmún**To — the frontier***M.* 封疆 fêng¹ chiang¹*S.* „ „ „ fong kyang*C.* „ „ „ ɕfung ɕkōng**To keep a — watch***M.* 守得緊 shou³ tê chin³*S.* 看 „ „ „ k'oen² tuh
'kyung*C.* 守 „ „ „ 'shaú tak, 'kan**Cloth (cotton)***M.* 布 pu⁴*S.* „ „ „ poo²*C.* (棉) 布 (ɕmín) pò²**Grass —***M.* 夏布 hsia⁴ pu⁴*S.* „ „ „ 'au² poo²*C.* „ „ „ há² pò²**Oil —***M.* 油布 yu² pu⁴*S.* „ „ „ yeu poo²*C.* „ „ „ ɕyáu pò²

Cloth, woollen

- M.* 絨 *jung*²; 呢 *ni*²
S. „ *nyong*; „ *nyi*
C. „ *ɕyung**

Table —

- M.* 檯布 *t'ai*² *pu*⁴
S. „ „ *de poo*²
C. „ „ *ɕ'oi** *pò*²

Clothes

- M.* 衣裳 *i*¹-*shang*¹; 衣服
*i*¹-*fu*
S. (1) *i zaung*
C. (1) *yí ɕshǒng*; (2) *yí fuk*₂

To put on —

- M.* 穿衣裳 *ch'uan*¹ *i*¹-*shang*¹
S. 着 „ „ *tsak i zaung*
C. „ „ 服 *chök*_o *yí fuk*₂

To take off —

- M.* 脫衣裳 *t'o*¹ *i*¹-*shang*¹
S. „ „ „ *t'oeh i zaung*
C. „ „ „ *t'üt*_o *yí ɕshǒng*

To change —

- M.* 換衣裳 *huan*⁴ *i*¹-*shang*¹
S. „ „ „ *wen i zaung*
C. „ „ „ *ɕwún yí ɕshǒng*

Clouds

- M.* 雲彩 *yün*²-*ts'ai*
S. „ *yuin*
C. „ *ɕwan*

Cloudy (day)

- M.* 陰天 *yin*¹ *t'ien*¹
S. „ „ *iung t'ien*
C. „ „ *yam ɕt'ín*

Coal

- M.* 煤 *mei*²
S. „ *me*
C. 炭 *t'án*²; 煤炭 *muí t'án*²

Coarse

- M.* 粗 *ts'u*¹
S. „ *ts'oo*
C. „ *ɕts'o*

Coast

- M.* 海邊 *hai*³ *pien*¹
S. „ „ *'he pien*
C. „ „ *'hoi pín*

Coat

- M.* 褂子 *kua*⁴-*tzü*
S. 馬褂 *'mo kwo*²
C. 衫 *shám*

Over —

- M.* 大褂子 *ta*⁴ *kua*⁴-*tzü*
S. 外套 *nga*² *t'au*²; 大衣
*doo*² *i*
C. 大衫 *tái*² *shám*

— (of paint)

- M.* 一層 *i*¹ *ts'êng*²
S. „ „ *ih dzeng*
C. 浸 *cham*²

Coffee

M. 咖啡 ka¹-fei

S. „ „ k'a fi

C. „ „ ká' o'féi

Coffin

M. 棺材 kuan¹-ts'ai

S. „ „ kwen ze

C. „ „ kwún ts'oi

Cold

M. 冷 lêng³

S. „ „ 'lang

C. „ „ 'láng

Catch —

M. 傷風 shang¹ fêng¹

S. „ „ saung fong

C. „ „ shǒng fung

— water

M. 凉水 liang² shui³

S. 冷 „ 'lang 's

C. 凍 „ tung³ 'shui

Collar

M. 領子 ling³-tzǔ

S. „ 頭 'ling deu

C. 頸領 'keng 'leng⁺

Horse —

M. 套包子 t'ao⁴ pao¹-tzǔ

S. 馬領圈 'mo 'ling choen

C. 馬輓 'má ák.

Collect

M. 湊 ts'ou⁴; 聚 chü⁴; 積
chi¹; 會集 hui⁴-chi²

S. (1) ts'eu²; (2) 'dzui; (3) dzih;
(4) we² dzih

C. (2) tsui²; (3) tsik; 聚集
tsui² tsáp₂

— together

M. 湊在一塊兒 ts'ou⁴
tsai⁴ i¹ k'uai⁴ 'rh

S. 聚攏 'dzui 'long; 聚
在一起 'dzui 'dze ih
'chi

C. 聚埋 tsui² 'mái

Collision

M. 相碰 hsiang¹ p'êng⁴; 搵
碰 ch'o¹ p'êng⁴

S. (1) siang bāng²

C. (1) sǒng p'ung²; 拈親
tím² 'ts'an

Colloquial

M. 俗話 su²-hua

S. „ „ dzok wo²; 土白
't'oo bak

C. „ „ tsuk₂ wá^{2*}

Colonel

M. 參將 ts'an¹-chiang¹; 正
參領 chêng⁴ ts'an¹-ling³;
陸軍上校 lu⁴ chün¹
shang⁴ hsiao⁴

S. (1) ts'en tsiang²; (2) tsung²
ts'en 'ling; (3) lok kyuin
zaung chiau

C. (1) ts'ám tsǒng²; (3) luk₂
'kwan shǒng háu²

Colonel, Lieutenant

M. 副參領 fu⁴ ts'an ling;

陸軍中校 lu⁴ chün¹
chung¹ hsiao⁴

S. (1) foo ts'en 'ling; (2) lok
kyuin tsong chiau

C. (1) fú² ts'ám 'ling; (2) luk₂
kwan chung háu²

Colour

M. 色 sê⁴; 顏色 yen²-sê⁴

S. „ suh; „ „ ngan suh

C. „ shik; „ „ ngán shik,

To hoist a ship's colours

M. 升旗 shêng¹ ch'í²

S. 扯 „ ts'a₂ji

C. 升船旗號 shing shün
k'ái hò²

Come

M. 來 lai²

S. „ le

C. 嚟 lai

Has he — ?

M. 來了沒有 lai² lo mei²
yu³

S. 伊來哉否 yí le tse va²

C. 嚟唔曾呢 lai m
ts'ang ni

To — back

M. 回來 hui² lai²

S. „ „ we le

C. 翻嚟 fán lai

Just come

M. 剛來了 kang¹ lai² lo

S. „ „ „ kaung le liau

C. 啱啱嚟到 ngám
ngám lai tò²

Comfortable

M. 舒服 shu¹-fu

S. „ „ seu vok

C. „ „ shü fuk₂; 安樂
on lok₂

Command (sb.)

M. 命 ming⁴; 命令 ming⁴
ling⁴

S. (1) ming²; (2) ming² ling²

C. (1) ming²; (2) ming² ling²

Word of —

M. 號令 hao⁴ ling⁴

S. „ „ 'au' ling²

C. „ „ hò² ling²

Issue —

M. 下令 hsia⁴ ling⁴

S. 出 „ ts'eh ling²

C. „ 命 ch'ut, ming²

— (vb.)

M. 吩咐 fên¹-fu; 令 ling⁴

S. „ „ fung foo²

C. „ „ fan fú²

— (an army)

M. 統帶 t'ung³ tai⁴

S. „ 領 't'ong 'ling

C. „ 帶 t'ung tái²

Commander (of an army)

M. 將軍 *chiang¹-chün¹*; 總

司令 *tsung³ ssü ling*

S. (1) *tsiang³ kyuin*; (2) *'tsong
s ling²*

C. (1) *tsöng² kwan*; (2) *'tsung
sz ling²*

— **-in-chief**

M. 元帥 *yüan²-shuai*

S. „ „ *nyoen se³*

C. „ „ *yün shui²*

Commerce

M. 通商 *t'ung¹-shang¹*; 貿
易 *mao⁴-i⁴*

S. (1) *t'ong saung*; 交易
kyau yuh

C. (1) *t'ung shöng*; (2) *mau²
yik²*

Commission (an officer's)

M. 官照 *kuan¹ chao⁴*

S. „ „ *kwen tsau³*

C. „ „ *kwün chífú²*

— **(money)**

M. 經紀抽分 *ching¹-chi⁴*
ch'ou¹ fên¹; 花銷 *hua¹-
hsiao*

S. 買賣經紀 *'ma ma³*
kyung kyí²; 扣頭 *k'eu²
de*

C. 用銀 *yung²* ngan*

Commission (vb.)

M. 差委 *ch'ai¹-wei³*; 託 *t'o¹*

S. 委託 *'we t'auh*; 差
派 *p'a²*

C. (1) *ch'ai¹ wai*; 委託 *'wai
t'ok_o*

Commissioner of Customs

M. 稅務司 *shui⁴ wu⁴ ssü¹*

S. „ „ „ *soe³ voo³ s*

C. „ „ „ *shui³ mò² sz*

Common (public)

M. 公 *kung¹*

S. „ *kong*

C. „ *kung*; 公眾 *kung
chung²*

— **(usual)**

M. 平常 *p'ing²-ch'ang²*

S. „ „ *bing dzang*

C. „ „ *p'ing shöng²*

— **saying**

M. 俗語 *su² yü³*

S. „ „ *dzok 'nyui*

C. „ „ *tsuk² 'yü*

Communication (official)

M. 照會 *chao⁴-hui⁴*

S. „ „ *tsau³ we²*

C. „ „ *chífú² wúi²*

— **(to higher officer)**

M. 稟報 *ping³ pao⁴*

S. 報告 *pau³ kau²*

C. 稟報 *'pan pò²*; 稟告
'pan kò²

Compass, needle of a

M. 指南針 *chih³ nan² chên¹*

S. „ „ „ 'ts nen tsung

C. 方針 _cfong _ccham

Compel

M. 勒令 lê² ling⁴; 强逼

ch'iang²-pi¹

S. (2) 'chang pih; 勉强
'mien 'chang

C. 勉强 ʃmín ʃk'öng

S. „ „ sen kya

Compensate

M. 補 pu³; 賠償 p⁴ei²
ch'ang³

S. (1) 'poo; (2) be dzaung

C. 賠補 $\text{p}^{\prime}\text{ui} \text{ } ^{\circ}\text{pò}$

Complain

M. 訴怨 su⁴ yüan⁴; 控告
k'ung⁴ kao⁴

S. (1) soo' ioen'; 告訴 kau'
soo'

C. (1) sò' yün

Complete (adj.)

M. 成全 ch'êng² ch'üan²;

十分 shih² fên¹

S. (1)dzung dzien'; (2)zeh fung

C. 周全 *ɕchau ʅts'ün*; 十全 *shap₂ ʅts'ün*

M. 指南車 chih³ nan² ch'ê¹;
羅盤 lo² p'an²

S. 羅經 loo kyung

C. (2) clo xp'ún

Complete (vb.)

M. 成就 ch'êng² chiu⁴; 完 wan²

S. (1) dzung dzieu³; (2) wen

C. 成 shing; 做成 tsò² shing

To — an affair

M. 成事 ch'êng² shih⁴

S. 做成功 tsoo³ dzung kong

C. 成事 shing sz²

Compradore

M. 買辦 mai⁴-pan

S. „ „ 'ma ban'

C. „ „ 'máf pán²*

Condemn

M. 定罪 ting⁴ tsui⁴

S. „ „ ding³ 'dzoe

C. „ „ ting² tsui²

— to death

M. 定死罪 ting⁴ ssü³ tsui⁴

S. „ „ „ ding³ 'si 'dzoe

C. „ „ „ ting² 'sz tsui²

Conduct

M. 行爲 hsing²-wei; 作爲 tso⁴-wei

S. (1) 'ang we; 品行 p'ing yung³; 舉動 'kyui 'dong

C. (1) 'háng 'wai

Conduct (vb.)

M. 引導 yin³ tao⁴; 送 sung⁴

S. (1) 'iung dau³; 領 ling

C. 引帶 'yan tái³; (2) sung³

Confess

M. 承認 ch'êng² jên⁴

S. „ „ dzung nyung²

C. 認 ying²

Confucius

M. 孔夫子 k'ung³-fu-tzü³

S. „ „ „ k'ong foo 'ts

C. „ „ „ chung fú 'tsz

Confusion

M. 雜亂 tsa² luan⁴

S. „ „ zeh loen³

C. 亂 lün²

Connected

M. 相連 hsiang¹ lien²

S. „ „ siang lien

C. „ „ söng lín; 連埋 lín mái

— (by road, &c.)

M. 相通 hsiang¹ t'ung¹

S. 通 t'ong

C. 相通 söng t'ung

Conquer

M. 勝 shêng⁴; 贏 ying²

S. „ sung³; „ yung

C. „ shing; „ yeng⁴

Consent (vb.)

M. 允 yün³; 允准 yün³-chun³

S. 答應 teh iung²; (1) 'iuin;
(2) 'iuin 'tsung

C. (2) 'wan 'chun; 允肯 'wan 'hang

Will never —

M. 終不肯 chung¹ pu k'ên³; 總不允 tsung³ pu yün³

S. 終勿肯 tsong 'veh 'k'ung

C. 永遠不肯 'wing 'yün pat, 'hang

Consider

M. 思想 ssü¹ hsiang³; 想一想 hsiang³ i hsiang³

S. (1) s 'siang; (2) 'siang ih 'siang

C. (1) sz 'söng

Constable

M. 巡捕 hsün²-pu; 捕役 pu³ i⁴

S. (1) dzing boo³; 捕快 boo³ k'wa²

C. 差人 ch'ái gyan; 差役 ch'ái yik₂

— (Chinese headman)

M. 地保 ti⁴-pao³

S. „ „ di³ 'pau

C. „ „ téi² 'pò

Consul

M. 領事官 ling³ shih kuan¹

S. „ „ „ 'ling z² kwen

C. „ „ „ 'ling sz² kwún

Acting —

M. 署領事官 shu³ ling³ shih kuan¹

S. „ „ „ „ dzui² 'ling z² kwen

C. „ „ „ „ 'ch'ü (理 'léi) 'ling sz² kwún

Vice —

M. 副領事官 fu⁴ ling³ shih kuan¹

S. „ „ „ „ foo² 'ling z² kwen

C. „ „ „ „ fú² 'ling sz² kwún

Content

M. 心滿 hsin¹-man³; 自在 tzü⁴-tsai⁴

S. (1) sing 'men; (2) z² 'dze

C. 心足 sam tsuk; 知足 ch'í tsuk; 滿意 'mún yf

Continue

M. 不絕 pu⁴ chüeh²

S. 勿斷 'veh 'doen

C. 照常 ch'ú² shōng; 接續 tsíp_o tsuk₂

To continue without interruption

M. 接連不斷 chieh¹ lien²
pu⁴ tuan⁴

S. „ „ 勿歇 tsih lien
'veh hyih

C. 連作不止 lín tsok_o
pat, 'chí

Contract (sb.)

M. 約單 yüeh¹-tan¹; 合同
ho²-t'ung

S. (1) iak tan; (2) 'eh dong

C. (2) hop_o t'ung*

— (vb.)

M. 立約 li⁴ yüeh¹

S. „ „ lih iak

C. „ „ láp₂ yök₂

To — to do

M. 包辦 pao¹ pan⁴

S. „ „ pau ban²

C. 接承嚟做 tsíp_o shing
laí tsò²

Convenient

M. 方便 fang¹ pien

S. 便當 bien² taung²

C. 方便 fong pín²

Convince

M. 辯倒 pien⁴ tao³; 間倒
wên⁴ tao³

S. 說倒 seh 'tau; 說服
seh vok

C. 辯明白 pín² ming pák₂

Convince, unable to

M. 講不過 chiang³ pu kuo⁴

S. 說勿服 seh 'veh vok;

講勿過 'kaung-'veh
koo²

C. 辯不贏 pín² pat, syeng +

Convoy (vb.)

M. 護送 hu⁴ sung⁴

S. „ „ 'oo' song²

C. „ „ wú² sung²

Cook (sb.)

M. 廚子 ch'u²-tzü

S. „ „ dzu 'ts

C. 做廚 tsò² 'ch'ü*; 伙頭
'fo t'au*

— (vb.)

M. 煮 chu³

S. 燒 sau

C. 煮 'chü

Cool

M. 涼 liang²

S. „ liang

C. „ löng

Coolie

M. 苦力 k'u³-li⁴; 挑夫
t'iao¹ fu

S. 小工 'siau kong; 脚夫
kyak foo

C. 咕哩 kwú léi; 管店
'kwún tím*

Copper*M.* 銅 t'ung²*S.* „ dong*C.* „ t'ung²**Copy (vb.)***M.* 抄寫 ch'ao¹ hsieh³; 謄寫 t'êng² hsieh³*S.* (1) ts'au 'sia; (2) dung 'sia*C.* (1) ch'áu 'se**Cord***M.* 繩子 shêng²-tzŭ*S.* „ 頭 zung deu*C.* „ shing**Cork (of a bottle)***M.* 塞子 sai⁴-tzŭ*S.* „ 頭 suh deu*C.* 罇枳 tsun chat,**Corkscrew***M.* 鑽子 tsuan¹-tzŭ*S.* „ „ tsoe 'ts*C.* 酒鑽 'tsau tsŭn³**Corn***M.* 穀 ku³; 糧食 liang²-shih²*S.* (1) kok; (2) liang zuh*C.* (1) kuk;; (2) lŏng shik₂**Indian —***M.* 玉米 yŭ⁴-mi*S.* 珍珠米 tsung tsu 'mi*C.* 粟米 suk, 'mái**Corner***M.* 角 chiao³*S.* „ kauh*C.* „ 頭 kok_o t'áu***Three-cornered***M.* 三角的 san¹-chiao³-ti*S.* „ „ 个 san kauh kuh*C.* „ „ sám kok_o**Corns (on the foot)***M.* 雞眼 chi¹ yên*S.* „ „ kyi 'ngan*C.* „ „ kai 'ngán**Corpse***M.* 尸首 shih¹-shou*S.* „ „ s 'seu*C.* 屍 shí**Correct (adj.)***M.* 正直 chêng⁴-chih²; 不錯 pu² ts'o⁴*S.* (1) tsung² dzuh; 勿錯 'veh ts'o*C.* (1) ching² chik₂; 有錯 'mò ts'o²**— (vb.)***M.* 改正 kai²-chêng*S.* „ „ 'ke tsung²*C.* „ „ 'koi cheng²†**Cost***M.* 價錢 chia⁴-ch'ien*S.* „ „ 'ka dien*C.* „ „ ká' ts'ín

What does it cost?

M. 價錢多少 chia⁴-ch'ien
to¹-shao³

S. 啥價錢 sa² 'ka dien

C. 幾多價錢呢 'kéi to
ká² ts'in 'ni

Cotton (raw)

M. 棉花 mien²-hua

S. „ „ mien hwo

C. „ „ mín fá

— cloth

M. 布 pu⁴

S. „ „ poo²

C. 棉布 mín pò²

Sewing —

M. 棉線 mien² hsien⁴

S. „ „ mien sien²

C. „ „ mín sín²

Count

M. 數 shu³; 算 suan⁴

S. „ „ 'soo; „ soen²

C. „ „ 'sho; „ sün²

Country

M. 國 kuo²

S. „ „ kok

C. „ „ kwok_o

Foreign —

M. 外國 wai⁴ kuo²

S. „ „ nga² kok

C. „ „ ngoi² kwok_o

Country, one's native

M. 本國 pên³ kuo²

S. „ „ 'pung kok

C. „ „ 'pún kwok_o

To go into the —

M. 到鄉下去 tao⁴ hsiang¹-
hsia ch'ü⁴

S. „ „ „ „ tau² hyang
“au chí²

C. 落鄉 lok₂ 'hōng

Course

M. 道 tao⁴; 路 lu⁴

S. „ „ dau²; „ loo²

C. „ „ tò²; „ lò²; tò²-lò²

Of —

M. 自然 tzü⁴-jan²

S. „ „ z² zen

C. „ „ tsz² yín

Cover (sb.)

M. 蓋兒 kai⁴-'rh

S. „ „ 頭 ke² deu

C. „ „ koi²

— (vb.)

M. 蓋上 kai⁴-shang

S. „ „ 好 ke² 'hau

C. „ „ 住 koi² chü²

Cow

M. 牛 niu²; 母牛 mu³ niu²

S. „ „ nyau; (2) 'moō nyau

C. „ „ 'ngáu; 牛 𪛗 'ngáu
'ná

Cow, to milk a*M.* 擠奶 *chi*³ *nai*³*S.* 捋 „ *loeh* 'na*C.* 撻 „ *chá* 'nái**Crawl***M.* 趴 *p'a*²; 爬 *p'a*²*S.* „ *bo**C.* 蹣 *lán*; 爬行 *p'a* *háng*⁺**Creature***M.* 生物 *shêng*¹ *wu*⁴; 禽獸 *ch'in*² *shou*⁴*S.* „ „ *sung* *veh*; (2) *jung* *seu*²*C.* (1) *sháng* *mat*₂**Crew (ship's)***M.* 船上水手 *ch'uan*² *shang* *shui*³ *shou*³*S.* „ „ „ „ *zen* 'zaung 's 'seu*C.* „ „ „ „ *shün* *shöng*² 'shui 'shau**Crime***M.* 罪 *tsui*⁴; 罪過 *tsui*⁴ *kuo*⁴*S.* „ *dzoe*; „ „ *dzoe* *koo*²*C.* „ *tsui*²; „ „ *tsui*² *kwo*²**To commit a capital —***M.* 犯死罪 *fan*⁴ *ssü*³ *tsui*⁴*S.* „ „ „ 'van 'si 'dzoe*C.* „ „ „ *fán*² 'sz *tsui*²**Cross***M.* 過 *kuo*⁴; 渡 *tu*⁴*S.* „ *koo*²*C.* „ *kwo*²**To cross a river***M.* 過河 *kuo*⁴ *ho*²; 渡河 *tu*⁴ *ho*²*S.* (1) *koo*² 'oo; (2) *doo*² 'oo*C.* (1) *kwo*² 'ho**Crowd (vb.)***M.* 擁擠 *yung*³ *chi*³*S.* „ „ *iong* *tsi**C.* 擠擁 *tsai* 'yung**A — of people***M.* 一群人 *i* *ch'ün*² *jên*²*S.* „ „ „ *ih* *juin* *nyung**C.* „ „ „ *yat*, *ek* 'wan *yan***Cruel***M.* 殘虐 *ts'an*² *nüeh*⁴*S.* 暴虐 *bau*² *nyak*; 凶惡 *hyong* *auh**C.* 殘忍 *ts'an* 'yan**Cultivate***M.* 耕種 *kêng*¹ *chung*⁴*S.* „ „ *kung* *tsong*²*C.* „ „ *káng* *chung*²**To — land***M.* 種地 *chung*⁴ *ti*⁴*S.* „ „ *tsong*² *dí*²*C.* „ „ *chung*² *téi*²**Cup***M.* 杯 *pei*¹; 鍾子 *chung*¹ *tzü*; 碗 *wan*³*S.* (1) *pe*; (2) *dzong* 'ts; (3) *wen**C.* (1) *pu*

A cup of tea*M.* 一碗茶 i wan³ ch'a²*S.* " " " ih 'wen dzo*C.* " 杯茶 yat, ɕpui ɕh'á**Cure (vb.)***M.* 治好 chih⁴ hao³*S.* 醫 " i 'hau*C.* " " yí 'hò**Custom***M.* 規矩 kuei¹-chü; 風俗
fêng¹-su*S.* (1) kwe 'kyui; (2) fong dzok*C.* (1) ɕk'wai 'kui; (2) ɕfung tsuk₂**— House***M.* 稅關 shui⁴ kuàn¹*S.* " " soe³ kwan*C.* " " shui² ɕkwán**Customs (maritime)***M.* 海關 hai³ kuan¹*S.* " " 'he kwan*C.* " " 'hoi ɕkwán**Commissioner of —***M.* 稅務司 shui⁴ wu⁴ ssü¹*S.* " " " soe³ voo³ s*C.* " " " shui² mò² ɔsz**Inspector General of —***M.* 總稅務司 tsung³shui⁴
wu⁴ ssü¹*S.* " " " " 'tsong soe³
voo³ s*C.* " " " " 'tsung shui²
mò² ɕsz**Customs, superintendent of
(Chinese)***M.* 海關監督 hai³ kuan¹
chien¹-tu*S.* " " " " 'he kwan
'kan tok*C.* " " " " 'hoi ɕkwán
ɕkám tuk,**To levy — duties***M.* 徵稅 chêng¹ shui⁴*S.* 收 " seu soe³*C.* 徵 " ɕching shui²; 抽
關稅 ɕch'áu ɕkwán shui²**To pay — duties***M.* 完稅 wan² shui⁴*S.* " " wen soe³*C.* " " yün shui²**Cut***M.* 割 ko¹; 切 ch'ieh⁴; 刺
la³*S.* (1) koeh; (2) ts'ih*C.* (1) kot₀; (2) ts'ft₀**To — grass***M.* 割草 ko¹ ts'ao³*S.* " " koeh 'ts'au*C.* " " kot₀ 'ts'ò**To — down a tree***M.* 砍樹 k'an³ shu⁴*S.* 斬 tsan zu³*C.* " 禽樹 ɕchám ɕp'o shü²

To cut a channel*M.* 開溝 k'ai¹ kou¹*S.* „ „ k'e¹ keu*C.* „ „ ㄅㄞˊ ㄍㄠˊ**Daily***M.* 天天 t'ien¹ t'ien¹; 每天
mei³ t'ien¹*S.* 日日 nyih nyih; 每日
me nyih*C.* 日日 yat₂ yat₂; 每日 'múi
yat₂**— newspaper***M.* 日報 jih⁴ pao⁴*S.* „ „ nyih pau³*C.* „ „ yat₂ pò³**Damage***M.* 損傷 sun³ shang¹; 損
害 sun³ hai⁴*S.* (1) sung³ saung; 傷害
saung 'e³*C.* (1) 'sün shōng; (2) 'sün
hoi²; 損壞 'sün wái²**Damp***M.* 潮濕 ch'ao² shih¹*S.* „ „ dzau sak*C.* „ „ ㄔㄠˊ ㄕㄞˊ; 濕
shap,**Danger***M.* 危險 wei² hsien³*S.* „ „ we 'hyien*C.* „ „ ㄨㄟ ㄏㄢˊ**Danger, to run into***M.* 冒險 mao⁴ hsien³*S.* „ „ mau³ 'hyien*C.* „ „ mò² 'hím**Dare***M.* 敢 kan³*S.* „ ken*C.* „ kom**Dark***M.* 黑 hei¹; 暗黑 an⁴-hei¹*S.* „ huh; 黑暗 huh en³*C.* „ hak,**It will soon be —***M.* 快黑了 k'uai⁴ hei¹ lo*S.* 就要黑哉 zieu³ iau³
huh tse*C.* 有耐黑咯 'mò noi²*
hak, lok,**Date (fruit)***M.* 棗兒 tsao³ 'rh*S.* „ 子 'tsau 'ts*C.* 蜜棗 mat₂ 'tsò**— (time)***M.* 日期 jih⁴-ch'i*S.* „ „ nyih ji*C.* „ „ yat₂ ㄕㄞˊ**Daughter***M.* 女兒 nü²-rh*S.* 囡 noen²; 小姐 'siau
'tsia*C.* 女 'nui

December

M. 十二月 shih² êrh⁴ yüeh⁴

S. „ „ „ zeh nyi³ nyoeh

C. 英十二月 ying shap₂
y² yüit₂

Decide

M. 定規 ting⁴ kuei; 定 ting⁴

S. (2) ding³; 決定 kyoeh
ding²

C. (2) ting²; 決斷 k'üt₀ tün³

To — a case

M. 定案 ting⁴ an⁴

S. „ „ ding³ oen³

C. „ „ ting² on³

To — unjustly

M. 枉斷 wang³ tuan⁴

S. „ „ 'waung toen³

C. „ „ 'wong tün³

Deck (of a ship)

M. 船面 ch'uan² mien⁴; 艙
板 ts'ang¹ pan³

S. (1) zen mien³; (2) ts'aung
pan

C. (1) shün mín^{2*}

Deep

M. 深 shên¹

S. „ „ sung

C. „ „ sham

Defeat

M. 敗 pai⁴; 敗仗 pai⁴ chang^{4*}

S. „ „ ba³; 打敗 'tang ba³

C. (1) pái²; (2) pái² chöng³; 打
敗 'tá pái²

Defend

M. 隄防 ti¹ fang²; 防守
fang² shou³

S. (1) di baung; (2) baung 'seu

C. 保護 'pò wú²

**Degree (in astronomy or geo-
graphy)**

M. 度 tu⁴

S. „ „ doo³

C. „ „ tò²

— (of latitude)

M. 緯度 wei³ tu⁴

S. „ „ we³ doo³

C. 地緯度 téi² 'wai tò²

— (of longitude)

M. 經度 ching¹ tu⁴

S. „ „ kyung doo³

C. 地經度 téi² 'king tò²

Delay

M. 耽擱 tan¹ ko¹; 遲延
ch'ih² yen

S. „ „ tan kauh

C. 遲緩 ch'í wún²

Deliberate (vb.)

M. 商量 shang¹ liang²; 斟
酌 chên¹ cho²

S. (1) saung liang; (2) tsung
tsak

C. (1) shöng löng

Demand

- M.* 討 t'ao³; 要 yao⁴
S. „ t'au; „ iau²
C. „ 取 t'ò ts'ui

Dense

- M.* 密 mi⁴; 稠密 ch'ou² mi⁴
S. „ mih; 縐 „ mang mih
C. (2) ch'au mat₂
 — foliage

M. 樹葉森森 shu⁴ yeh⁴
 sên¹-sên¹

S. 樹葉縐密 zu² yih
 'mang mih

C. 樹葉密 shü² yip₂ mat₂
 — smoke

- M.* 稠烟 ch'ou² yen¹
S. 濃 „ nyong ien
C. 雲 „ swan yín; 雲烟
 稠密 swan yín ch'au
 mat₂

Deny

- M.* 不認 pu⁴ jên⁴
S. 勿 „ 'veh nyung²
C. 不 „ pat, ying²

Depend

- M.* 靠 k'ao⁴; 倚賴 i³ lai⁴
S. „ k'au²; 依靠 i k'au²
C. 倚靠 'i-hò² (k'au²); 靠
 賴 hò² (k'au²)-lái²

Descend

- M.* 下去 hsia⁴ ch'ü⁴
S. „ „ 'au chi²
C. 落 „ lok₂ hui²

Describe

- M.* 講出來 chiang³ ch'u¹ lai²
S. „ „ „ 'kaung ts'eh le;
 講明 'kaung ming
C. 指出 'chí ch'ut₂; 講清
 楚 'kong ts'ing 'ch'ò

Desert (from the army)

- M.* 逃軍 t'ao² chün¹
S. „ „ dau kyuin
C. „ „ t'ò kwan

Deserter

- M.* 逃兵 t'ao² ping¹
S. „ „ dau ping
C. „ „ t'ò ping

Despatch (noun)

- M.* 文書 wên²-shu¹; 照會
 chao⁴-hui⁴
S. (1) vung su; 公文 kong
 vung
C. (1) swan shü; (2) chíú² wúí²

Destroy

- M.* 滅 mieh⁴; 毀壞 hui³ huai⁴
S. „ 脫 mih t'eh; (2) 'hwe
 wa'
C. 毀滅 'wai mít₂

Detain*M.* 留 liu²*S.* „ lieu*C.* „ ɿlaú

— by force

M. 强留 ch'iang² liu²*S.* „ „ jang lieu*C.* „ „ ɿk'öng ɿlaú**Dialect***M.* 土話 t'u³ hua⁴*S.* „ „ t'oo wo²*; 土白
t'oo bak*C.* „ „ t'ò wá²***Local** —*M.* 本地話 pên³ ti⁴ hua⁴*S.* „ „ „ 'pung di³ wo²*C.* „ „ „ 'pún téi² wá²***Mandarin** —*M.* 官話 kuan¹ hua⁴*S.* „ „ kwen wo²*C.* „ „ ɿkwún wá²***Diarrhoea***M.* 瀉肚子 hsieh⁴ tu⁴-tzŭ*S.* 肚子瀉 doo² 'ts sia²*C.* „ 痢 ɿ'ò ɿo**Dictionary***M.* 字典 tzŭ⁴ tien³*S.* „ „ z² 'tien*C.* „ „ tsz² 'tfn**Die***M.* 死 ssŭ³*S.* „ 'si*C.* „ 'sz**Different***M.* 不同 pu⁴ t'ung²*S.* 勿 „ 'veh dong*C.* 不 „ pat, ɿ'úng

— sort

M. 別樣 pieh² yang⁴*S.* „ „ bih yang²*C.* „ „ pft_oyöng²*; 唔同
樣 ɿm ɿt'ung yöng²***Very** —*M.* 差得遠 ch'a¹ tê yüan³*S.* „ „ „ ts'o tuh 'yoen;大不同 doo² peh dong*C.* 差得遠 ɿch'á tak, ɿyün**Difficult***M.* 難 nan²*S.* „ nan; 煩難 van nan*C.* „ ɿnán; 惡 ok.**Dig***M.* 刨 p'ao²; 挖 wa¹*S.* 掘 joeh*C.* „ kwat₂**To** — trenches*M.* 開壕 k'ai¹ hao²*S.* „ „ k'e hau*C.* 掘戰溝 kwat₂ chin² ɿkáu

Dine

M. 吃飯 ch'ih¹ fan⁴S. „ „ chuh van³C. 食大餐 shik₂ tái² ts'án;食晚飯 shik₂ mán² fán²

Dinner

M. 大飯 ta⁴ fan⁴S. „ „ doo³ van³; 中飯
tsong van³C. 大餐 tái² ts'án; 晚飯
mán² fán²

Is — ready?

M. 飯得了麼 fan⁴ tê² lo
moS. 飯阿曾好哉 van³ a
zung 'hau tseC. 大餐便未呀 tái² ts'án
pín² méi² á²

Take away the —

M. 撤飯 ch'é⁴ fan⁴

S. 收碗蓋 seu 'wen tsan

C. „ 檯 shau² t'oi²*

Dirty

M. 骯髒 ang¹-tsang

S. 齷齪 auh ts'auh

C. 污糟 o tsò

Disappear

M. 不見了 pu⁴ chien⁴ lo;沒影兒 mei² ying³ rh

S. 勿見哉 'veh kyien' tse ;

沒影沒踪 meh 'iung
meh tsongC. 唔見 m kín³

Discharge (a gun)

M. 放 fang⁴S. „ faung³C. „ fong³; 燒炮 shfú p'áu³

To — a cargo

M. 卸貨 hsieh⁴ huo⁴S. „ „ sia' hoo³C. 起 „ 'héi fo³

Discover

M. 看 (or 查) 出來 k'an⁴
(or ch'a²) ch'u¹ lai²S. 看 (or 查) 出來 k'oen³
(or dzo) ts'eh le; 尋着
zing dzak

C. 查出 ch'á ch'ut,

Unable to —

M. 查不出來 ch'a² pu⁴
ch'u¹ lai²

S. 尋勿着 sing 'veh dzak

C. 唔查得出 m ch'á tak,
ch'ut,

Disease

M. 病 ping⁴S. „ bing³; 毛病 mau bing³C. „ peng³†

Disease, dangerous

M. 利害的病 li⁴ hai⁴ ti ping⁴

S. „ „ 个毛病 li³ 'e' kuh mau bing³

C. 危症 ɛngai ching³

Disgrace

M. 羞辱 hsiu¹ ju⁴

S. „ „ sieu zok

C. „ „ ㄟsau yuk₂

Dishonest

M. 不正經 pu⁴ chêng⁴ ching

S. 勿正經 'veh tsung³ kyung; 勿老實 'veh 'lau zeh

C. 不誠實 pat, ɛshing shat₂; 唔真實 ɛm chan shat₂

Dismiss

M. 散 san⁴; 辭 tz'ü²

S. 停 ding; „ dz

C. (1) sán³; 不用 pat, yung²

Disobey

M. 違背 wei² pei

S. „ „ we be³

C. „ „ ɛwai pui³

Distant

M. 遠 yüan³; (50 li —) 五十里遠 wu³ shih li³ yüan³

S. 'yoen; (50 li —) 'ng zeh 'li 'yoen

C. ɛyün; (50 li —) 'ng shap₂ ɛléi ɛyün

Distinguish

M. 分別 fên¹ pieh; 分明 fên¹ ming²

S. (1) fung pih; (2) fung ming

C. (1) ɛfan pít₂

District (political division)

M. 縣 hsien⁴

S. „ „ yoen³

C. „ „ yün²

— magistrate

M. 知縣 chih¹ hsien⁴

S. „ „ ts yoen³

C. „ „ ɛchí yün²

— officials

M. 地方官 ti⁴-fang kuan¹

S. „ „ „ di³ faung kwen

C. „ „ „ téi² ɛfong ɛkwún

Ditch

M. 溝 kou¹

S. „ „ keu

C. „ „ ㄟkau; 溝渠 ㄟkau ɛk'ui

Divide

M. 分 fên¹; 分開 fên¹ k'ai

S. „ „ fung; „ „ fung k'e

C. „ „ ɛfan; „ „ ɛfan ɛhoi

Do

M. 做 tso⁴; 行 hsing²

S. „ „ tsoo³; „ „ 'ang

C. „ „ tsò²

How do you do?M. 你好 nin² hao³

S. 好拉否 'hau la' va

C. 你好 'néi 'hò

It will —M. 可以 k'ò³-i³S. „ „ k'au yi; 好个
'hau kuhC. 做得 tsò² tak₃; 可以
'ho 'yí**It will not —**M. 不行 pu⁴ hsing²

S. 勿 „ 'veh 'ang

C. 唔做得 'm tsò² tak₃**To — business**M. 辦事 pan⁴ shih⁴S. „ „ ban³ z'C. „ „ pán² sz²; 做生意
tsò² 'sháng yí**Dock**M. 船塢 ch'uan² wu³; 船
廠 ch'uan² ch'ang³S. (1) zen 'oo; (2) zen ts'ang²

C. 船澳 'shün ò'

DoctorM. 大夫 tai⁴-fu; 醫生 i¹-
shêngS. (2) i sung; 郎中 laung
tsong

C. (2) yí 'sháng +

DogM. 狗 kou³

S. „ 'keu

C. „ 'kau

The — barksM. 狗咬 kou³ yao³

S. „ 叫 'keu kyau'

C. „ 吠 'kau fai²**Dollar**M. 洋錢 yang² ch'ien²; 元
yüan²

S. „ „ yang dien

C. (2) 'yün; 銀錢 'ngan
'ts'in ***Half a —**M. 半塊錢 pan⁴ k'uai⁴
ch'ien²S. „ „ „ pen³ k'we' dienC. 半文 pún³ 'man**Donkey**M. 驢 lü²

S. „ 子 li 'ts

C. „ 'lui

DoorM. 門 mên²

S. „ mung

C. „ 'mún

Next —M. 隔壁 ko² pi⁴ (chieh⁴-
pi³-êrh)

S. „ „ kah pih

C. „ 籬 kák_o 'léi

Open the doorM. 開門 k'ai¹ mên²

S. " " k'e mung

C. " " ㄅㄞˊ ㄇㄩㄣˊ

Shut the —M. 關門 kuan¹ mên²

S. " " kwan mung

C. " " ㄍㄨㄢ ㄇㄩㄣˊ

DoorwayM. 門口兒 mên² k'ou³ 'rh

S. " " mung k'eu

C. " " ㄇㄩㄣˊ ㄏㄠˊ

DoubleM. 雙 shuang¹; 兩倍 liang³ pei⁴

S. (1) saung; (2) 'liang be'

C. (1) ㄕㄨㄤ; (2) ㄌㄩㄥˊ ㄆㄟˊ

— as muchM. 多兩倍 to¹ liang³ pei⁴

S. " " " too 'liang be'

C. " " " ㄊㄛ ㄌㄩㄥˊ ㄆㄟˊ

— (vb).M. 加一倍 chia¹ i pei⁴

S. " " " ka ih be'

C. " " " ㄐㄚ ㄧ ㄆㄟˊ

DoubtM. 疑惑 i²-huo

S. " " nyi 'ok

C. " " ㄧˊ ㄨㄛˊ; 思疑
ㄙ ㄧˊ**Down**M. 下 hsia⁴

S. " " 'au

C. " " ㄒㄚˋ

Come —M. 下來罷 hsia⁴ lai² pa⁴

S. " " 'au le

C. 落 ㄌㄛˊ ㄌㄞˊ

To put —M. 擱下 ko¹ hsiaS. 放下 faung³ 'auC. " 落 fong³ lok₂; 擠落
ㄔㄞˊ ㄌㄛˊ**Drag**M. 拉 la¹; 拖 t'o¹

S. " 'la; " t'oo

C. " ㄌㄞˊ; " ㄊㄛˊ; 扯 'ch'e

To — a boat ashoreM. 拉船上岸 la¹ ch'uan²
shang⁴ an⁴S. " " " " 'la zen
'zaung ngoen'C. " " " " ㄌㄞˊ ㄕㄨㄢˊ
ㄕㄨㄥˊ ㄋㄍㄨㄥˊ**Dragon**M. 龍 lung²

S. " long

C. " ㄌㄨㄥˊ

Draw (sketch)M. 畫 hua⁴

S. " wo'

C. " wak₂; 寫 'sé

To draw a cart

M. 拉車 *la¹ ch'ê¹*

S. „ „ 子 *la ts'o¹ 'ts*

C. „ „ 𨋖 *lái ch'ê*

Drawer

M. 抽屜 *ch'ou¹ t'i⁴*

S. „ „ *ts'eu t'i*

C. 櫃桶 *kwai² 't'ung*

Dreadful

M. 可畏的 *k'o³ wei⁴ ti;*

利害 *li⁴-hai*

S. 可怕 *'k'au p'o²*

C. (2) *léi² hoi²*

Dress (vb.)

M. 打扮 *ta³-pan;* 穿衣裳
ch'uan¹ i¹-shang

S. (1) *'tang pan;* (2) *ts'en i*
zaung

C. 着衣裳 *chök_o yí shōng*

— (sb.)

M. 衣服 *i¹-fu;* 衣裳 *i¹-*
shang

S. (2) *i zaung*

C. (1) *yí fuk₂;* (2) *yí shōng*

Drill

M. 操練 *ts'ao¹ lien⁴*

S. „ „ *ts'au lien²*

C. „ „ *ts'ò lín²*

To — soldiers

M. 操兵 *ts'ao¹ ping¹;* 練
兵 *lien⁴ ping¹*

S. (1) *ts'au ping;* (2) *lien² ping*

C. (1) *ts'ò ping;* (2) *lín² ping*

— ground

M. 教場 *chiao¹ ch'ang³*

S. „ „ *kyau² dzang*

C. 較 „ *káu² ch'ōng**

Drink

M. 喝 *ho¹*

S. „ *hah;* 吃 *chuh*

C. 飲 *'yam*

What will you — ?

M. 你喝甚麼 *ni³ ho¹*
shê(n)²-mo

S. 儂要喝啥 *nong² iau²*
hah sa²

C. 你飲乜野呢 *'néi'yam*
mat, 'ye çni

Drive

M. 趕 *kan³*

S. „ *'koen*

C. „ *'kon*

To — a carriage

M. 趕車 *kan³ ch'ê¹*

S. „ „ 子 *'koen ts'o¹ 'ts*

C. 御 „ *yü² çkui*

To — out

M. 擡出 *nien³-ch'u¹*

S. 趕 „ 去 *'koen ts'eh chi²*

C. „ „ *'kon ch'ut,*

Driver

- M.* 車夫 ch'ê¹ fu; 趕車
的 kan³ ch'ê¹ ti
S. (1) ts'o foo
C. (1) ㄘㄏ'ㄝ ㄈㄨ

Drown

- M.* 淹死 yen¹ ssü
S. 沉殺 dzung sah
C. ,, 死 ㄘㄏ'am ㄙ'z; 浸死
tsam³ ㄙ'z

Drugs

- M.* 藥材 yao⁴-ts'ai
S. ,, ,, yak dze
C. ,, ,, yok₂ ㄘ'ts'oi

Drum

- M.* 鼓 ku³
S. ,, 'koo
C. ,, 'kwú
To beat a —
M. 打鼓 ta³ ku³
S. 敲 ,, k'au 'koo
C. 打 ,, 'tá 'kwú

Drunk

- M.* 醉了 tsui⁴ lo
S. ,, tsoe³
C. ,, tsui³
To get —
M. 喝醉 ho¹ tsui⁴
S. 吃醉 chuh tsoe³
C. 飲醉 'yam tsui³

Dry

- M.* 乾 kan¹
S. ,, koen
C. ,, ㄘ'kon
To — by the fire
M. 烘乾 hung¹ kan¹
S. ,, ,, hong koen
C. 焙 ,, pui² ㄘ'kon
To — in the sun
M. 晒乾 shai⁴ kan¹
S. ,, ,, so³ koen
C. ,, ,, shái³ ㄘ'kon

Duck

- M.* 鴨子 ya¹-tzü
S. ,, ah
C. ,, áp.
Wild —
M. 野鴨子 yeh³ ya¹-tzü
S. ,, ,, 'ya ah
C. 水 ,, 'shui áp.

Dung

- M.* 糞 fên⁴; 屎 shih³
S. ,, fung³; ,, oo³
C. ,, fan³; ,, 'shí

Dust

- M.* 土 t'u³; 塵土 ch'ên² t'u³
S. 灰塵 hwe dzung
C. 烟 ,, yín ㄘ'h'an; 塵埃
ㄘ'h'an ㄘ'oi

Duty

- M.* 本分 pên³ fên
S. „ „ 'pung vung'
C. „ „ 'pún fan²

Customs —

- M.* 稅 shui⁴; 稅餉 shui
 hsiang³
S. (1) soe²; (2) soe² hyang²
C. (1) shui²; (2) shui² 'hōng

Dynasty

- M.* 朝 ch'ao²
S. „ 代 dzau de²
C. „ 朝 ch'á'fú

The Ch'ing or Manchu —

- M.* 清朝 ch'ing¹ ch'ao²
S. „ „ ts'ing dzau
C. „ „ ts'ing ch'á'fú

Dysentery

- M.* 痢疾病 li⁴-chi ping⁴
S. „ „ li² dzih
C. „ 症 léi² ching²

Each

- M.* 每 mei³; 各 ko⁴
S. „ „ me; „ kauh
C. „ „ mui; „ kok.

Let — speak for himself

- M.* 各人自說 ko⁴ jên²
 tzŭ⁴ shuo¹
S. „ „ „ 家說 kauh
 nyung z' ka soeh
C. 各人自說 kok. yan
 tsz² shŭt.

Ear

- M.* 耳朶 êrh³-to
S. „ „ 'nyi 'too
C. „ „ 'yí

Early

- M.* 早 tsao³
S. „ „ 'sau
C. „ „ 'tsò

Earth (globe)

- M.* 地球 tí⁴ ch'iu²
S. „ „ di² jeu
C. „ „ téi² k'áu

— (soil)

- M.* 土 t'u³; 土地 t'u³ tí⁴
S. 爛泥 lan² nyi; 地土
 di² 'too
C. (1) t'ò; 坭土 nai t'ò

East

- M.* 東 tung¹
S. „ „ tong
C. „ „ tung

Easy

- M.* 容易 jung²-i
S. „ „ yong yi²
C. „ „ 'yung yf²

To make the mind. —

- M.* 放心 fang⁴ hsin¹
S. „ „ faung² sing
C. „ „ fong² sam

Effort, united

- M. 協力 hsieh² li⁴
 S. „ „ yah lih
 C. „ „ híp₂ lik₂; 合力
 hop₂ lik₂

Egg

- M. 雞蛋 chi¹ tan⁴; 鷄子
 兒 chi¹ tzŭ³-rh
 S. 蛋 dan²; (1) kyi dan²
 C. „ tán²*; (1) ㄔㄞˊ tán²*

Eight

- M. 八 pa¹
 S. „ pah
 C. „ pát_o

Either

- M. 或 huo⁴
 S. „ 是 'ok 'z
 C. „ wák₂

— large or small

- M. 或大或小 huo⁴ ta⁴
 huo⁴ hsiao³
 S. „ „ „ „ 'ok doo'
 'ok 'siau
 C. „ „ „ 細 wák₂ táí²
 wák₂ sai²

Elbow

- M. 肘膊肘 ko¹-pei chou³
 S. 臂撐子 pí ts'ang 'ts
 C. 手肘 'shau ㄔㄞˊ cháng

Electricity

- M. 電氣 tien⁴ chí⁴
 S. „ „ dien² chí²
 C. „ „ tén² héí²

Embankment

- M. 堤 tí¹; 河堤 ho² tí¹
 S. „ di; „ 塘 'oo daung
 C. 基 kéi; 河基 ho kéi;
 基圍 kéi ㄟ wai

Emperor

- M. 皇上 huang²-shang
 S. „ „ waung zang²; 皇
 帝 waung tí²
 C. „ „ ㄟ wong tai²

Empire

- M. 天下 t'ien¹-hsia; 國 kuo²
 S. (1) t'ien 'au; (2) kok
 C. (1) ㄊㄧㄢˊ há²; (2) kwok_o

Employ

- M. 用 yung⁴; 使 shih³
 S. „ yong²
 C. „ yung²; „ 'shai

Employer

- M. 東家 tung¹-chia; 主人
 chu²-jên
 S. „ „ tong ka; (2) 'tsu
 nyung
 C. „ „ ㄊㄨㄥ ká; (2) 'chŭ
 ㄧㄢˊ; 事頭 sz² ㄊㄠˊ 'au*

Employment*M.* 事業 shih⁴ yeh⁴*S.* „ 體 z² t'i*C.* „ 業 sz² yip₂**Constant** —*M.* 長工 ch'ang² kung¹*S.* „ „ dzang kong*C.* „ „ 𢆏h'öng 𢆏kung**Empty***M.* 空 k'ung¹*S.* „ k'ong*C.* „ 𢆏hung. [This word being unlucky, 吉 kat, is often used instead.]**Encamp***M.* 下營 hsia⁴ ying²; 安營 an¹ ying²*S.* 紮 „ tsah yung*C.* (1) há² ying; 𢆏營 cháp. ying**Encampment***M.* 營盤 ying²-p'an*S.* „ „ yung ben*C.* „ „ ying 𢆏p'un**End***M.* 終 chung¹; 末末了 mo⁴ mo⁴ liao³*S.* (1) tsong; 末 meh*C.* (1) 𢆏chung; 收尾 𢆏shau méi (or 𢆏méi)**From beginning to end***M.* 從頭至尾 ts'ung²-t'ou²chih⁴ wei³*S.* „ „ „ „ dzong deu ts' vi²*C.* „ „ „ „ 𢆏ts'ung 𢆏t'au chí² 𢆏méi**The — of the year***M.* 年底 nien² ti³*S.* „ „ nyien t'i*C.* „ 尾 𢆏nín 𢆏méi**Endure***M.* 忍耐 jên³ nai⁴*S.* „ „ 'nyung ne'*C.* „ „ 'yan noi²**Unable to —***M.* 忍不住 jên³ pu chu⁴*S.* 熬勿過去 ngau³ 'veh 'koo chí'*C.* 忍不住 'yan pat, chü²**Enemy***M.* 仇敵 ch'ou² ti²; 敵人 ti² jên²*S.* 對敵 te² dih; (1) jeu dih*C.* (1) 𢆏ch'au tik₂; (2) tik₂ 𢆏yan**The —'s troops***M.* 敵兵 ti² ping¹*S.* „ „ dih ping*C.* „ „ tik₂ ping; 敵軍 tik₂ 𢆏kwan

Engage

To — a teacher

M. 請先生 ch'ing³ hsien¹-shêng¹

S. „ „ „ 'ts'ing sien sang

C. „ „ „ 'ts'eng⁺ sîn sháng⁺

To — a workman

M. 雇工 ku⁴ kung¹S. „ „ „ koo² kongC. „ „ „ kwú² kung

To — a person to do

M. 托人做 t'o¹ jên² tso⁴

S. „ „ „ t'auhnyungtsou

C. 請 „ „ 'ts'eng⁺ yantsò²**Engine**M. 機器 chi¹-ch'iS. „ „ „ kyi chi²C. „ „ „ kéi héi²

A fire —

M. 水龍 shui³ lung²; 救火車 chiu⁴ huo³ ch'é¹S. (1) 's long; (2) kyeu² 'hoo ts'oC. 水車 'shui ch'é; (2) kau² 'fo ch'é

A railway —

M. 火車頭 huo³ ch'é¹ t'ou²

S. „ „ „ 'hoo ts'o deu

C. „ „ „ 'fo ch'é t'au

EnglandM. 英國 ying¹ kuo

S. „ „ „ iung kok

C. „ „ „ ying kwok.

EnglishM. 英國的 ying¹ kuo ti

S. „ „ „ 个 iung kok kuh

C. „ „ „ 嘅 ying kwok^o ke²**Englishman**M. 英國人 ying¹ kuo jên²

S. „ „ „ iung kok nyung

C. „ „ „ ying kwok^o cyan**Enjoy**M. 享 hsiang³S. „ „ „ hyang; 享受 hyang². 'zeu

C. „ „ „ 'hōng

EnoughM. 够 kou⁴S. „ „ „ keu²C. 够 kau²

Is it — ?

M. 够不 够 kou⁴ pu kou⁴S. „ „ „ 勿 keu² 'veh keu²C. 够唔 够呢 kau² m kau² ni**Enter**M. 進 chin⁴; 入 ju⁴S. „ „ „ tsing²C. 入 yap²; 進入 tsun² yap²

Entrance

- M. 口 k'ou³; 門 mên²
 S. „ „ k'eu; „ mung
 C. „ „ 'haú; „ mún

— to a canal lock

- M. 開口 cha² k'ou³
 S. „ „ zah k'eu
 C. 水開口 'shui cháp₂ 'haú

Envelope (of a letter)

- M. 信封 hsin⁴ fêng¹
 S. „ „ sing² fong
 C. „ „ sun² c'fung

Epidemic

- M. 瘟疫 wên¹ i⁴; 瘟疫 wên¹ tsai¹
 S. „ „ 'wung yok
 C. 時症 shí c'ching

Equal

— in size

- M. 一般大 i¹ pan¹ ta⁴
 S. „ 樣 „ ih yang² doo²
 C. 同一樣大細 t'ung yat, yǒng² tái² sai²

— in age

- M. 同歲的 t'ung² sui⁴ ti
 S. „ 年个 dong nyien kuh
 C. „ „ t'ung nín

— in rank

- M. 同等的 t'ung² têng³ tì
 S. „ „ 个 dong t'ung kuh
 C. „ „ t'ung tang

in equal parts

- M. 均分 chün¹ fên¹
 S. „ „ kyuin fung
 C. „ „ c'kwan fan²; 平分 p'ing fan²

Equip

- M. 備辦 pei⁴ pan⁴
 S. „ „ be³ ban²
 C. „ „ péi² pán²

Error

- M. 錯 ts'o⁴
 S. „ „ ts'o
 C. „ „ ts'o²

An — in reckoning

- M. 算錯了 suan⁴ ts'o⁴ lo
 S. „ „ „ soen² ts'o liau
 C. 計 „ kai² ts'o²

Escape

- M. 逃跑 t'ao² p'ao³
 S. „ 走 dau t'seu; 逃脫 dau t'eh
 C. 逃避 t'ò péi²; 脫離 t'üt₀ léi

Unable to —

- M. 不能殼脫身 pu⁴
 neng²-kou⁴ t'o¹ shên¹
 S. 勿能殼脫身 'veh
 nung keu² t'eh sung
 C. 唔走得用 m 'tsau tak,
 lat,

To escape from danger*M.* 逃險 t'ao² hsien³*S.* 避害 bi²-e'*C.* 逃險 t'ò² hfm**To — from prison***M.* 逃監 t'ao² chien¹*S.* „ „ dau kan*C.* „ „ t'ò² kám**Escort (sb.)***M.* 護軍 hu⁴ chün¹; 衛兵
wei² ping¹*S.* 護兵 'oo' ping*C.* „ 送之兵 wú² sung²
chí ping**— (vb.)***M.* 解送 chieh³ sung⁴*S.* „ „ ka² song²*C.* 護 „ wú² sung²; 押送
áp_o sung²**To — a guest***M.* 送客 sung⁴ k'o⁴*S.* „ „ song² k'ak*C.* „ „ sung² hák_o**Establish***M.* 立 li⁴; 設立 shê⁴ li⁴*S.* „ lih; „ „ seh lih*C.* „ láp₂; 建立 kín² láp₂**Europe***M.* 歐羅巴 ou¹-lo-pa¹; 歐
州 ou¹-chou¹*S.* (1) eu loo po*C.* (1) ǎu ǎlò ǎpa; (2) ǎu ǎchau**European***M.* 歐州人 ou¹-chou¹ jên²*S.* (1) eu tseu nyung*C.* (1) ǎu ǎchau ǎyan**Evening***M.* 晚上 wan³-shang*S.* 黃昏 waung hwung*C.* 挨晚 ǎi ǎmán**Ever***M.* 常時 ch'ang² shih²*S.* „ 庄 dzang tsaung*C.* „ 時 ǎshöng ǎshí**For —***M.* 永遠 yung³-yüan³*S.* „ „ 'iong 'yoen*C.* „ „ ǎwing ǎyün**Every***M.* 各 ko⁴; 每 mei³*S.* „ kauh; „ ǎme*C.* „ kok_o; „ ǎmui**— day***M.* 每天 mei³ t'ien¹*S.* „ 日 ǎme nyih*C.* „ „ ǎmui yat₂

Expect

- M. 盼望 p'an⁴ wang
 S. 望 maung²; 想望 'siang maung²
 C. „ mong²

Expenses

- M. 花費 hua¹-fei; 用費 yung⁴ fei⁴
 S. (1) hwo fi²; (2) yong² fi²
 C. 費用 fai² yung²; 使費 'shai fai²

Travelling —

- M. 盤費 p'an² fei⁴
 S. „ „ ben fi²; 路費 loo² fi²
 C. „ „ p'un fai²; 路費 lò² fai²

Explain

- M. 講 chiang³
 S. „ 'kaung
 C. 解 'kái

Explode

- M. 炸開 cha⁴ k'ai
 S. „ „ tso²-k'e; 爆開 pau²-k'e
 C. „ „ chá² hoi

Explosion**— of gunpowder**

- M. 火藥轟炸 huo³ yao⁴ hung¹ cha⁴
 S. „ „ „ „ 'hoo yak hong k'e
 C. „ „ „ „ 'fo yök² 'kwang chá²

Killed by an explosion

- M. 轟死 hung¹ ssü³
 S. 炸殺 tso² sah
 C. 轟死 'kwang 'sz

Extinguish

- M. 滅 mieh⁴
 S. „ mih
 C. „ mit²; 熄 sik,

Eye

- M. 眼 yen³; 眼睛 yen³-ching
 S. (2) 'ngan tsing
 C. (1) 'ngán; 眼目 'ngán muk²

Before my eyes.

- M. 在我眼前 tsai⁴ wo³ yen³ ch'ien²
 S. „ „ „ „ 'dze 'ngoo 'ngan zien
 C. „ „ „ „ tsoi² 'ngo 'ngán 'ts'in

Face

- M. 臉 lien³; 面 mien⁴
 S. 面孔 mien³ k'ong
 C. „ mín²

Before one's —

- M. 當面 tang¹ mien⁴
 S. „ „ taung mien³
 C. „ „ 'tong mín²; 面前 mín² 'ts'in

Face to face*M.* 對面 tui⁴ mien⁴*S.* „ „ te³ mien³*C.* „ „ tui³ mǐn²**To — south***M.* 向南 hsiang⁴ nan²*S.* 朝 „ tsau nen*C.* 向 „ hōng³ nám**Fact***M.* 事 shih⁴; 實事 shih²
shih⁴*S.* (2) zeh z²; 實情 zeh dzing²*C.* (1) sz²; (2) shat₂ sz²**In —***M.* 其實 ch'i¹ shih²; 實在
shih²-tsai⁴; 原來 yüan²-
lai²*S.* (1) ji zeh; (2) zeh 'dze; (3)
nyoen le*C.* (2) shat₂ tsoi²**Factory***M.* 行 hang²; 廠 ch'ang³; 局
chü²*S.* (1) 'aung; (2) dzang; (3) jok*C.* (1) chong^{*}; (2) 'ch'ong; (3)
kuk₂**A cloth —***M.* 織布廠 chih¹ pu⁴ ch'ang³*S.* „ „ „ tsuh poo³ dzang*C.* „ „ „ tsik, pò³ 'ch'ong**A gunpowder factory***M.* 火藥局 huo³ yao⁴ chü*S.* „ „ „ 'hoo yak jok*C.* „ „ „ 'fo yök₂ kuk₂**Fail***M.* 失 shih¹; 不成 pu⁴
ch'êng²*S.* (1) seh; 勿成功 'veh
dzung kong; 欠缺
chien³ choeh*C.* (1) shat₂; (2) pat₂ shing**To — in one's duty***M.* 不盡本分 pu⁴ chin⁴
pên³ fên*S.* 勿 „ „ „ 'veh 'dzing
'pung vung²*C.* 不 „ „ „ pat₂ tsun²
'pún fan²; 失本分 shat,
'pún fan²**Fall***M.* 吊下來 tiao⁴ hsia lai²;
落 lo⁴, lao⁴; 倒 tao³*S.* 跌下來 tih 'au³ le; (2)
lauh; (3) 'tau*C.* 跌 tít₀; 跌落 tít₀ lok₂;
跌倒 tít₀ 'tò**To stumble and —***M.* 跌倒 tieh¹ tao³*S.* „ „ „ tih 'tau*C.* 失足跌下 shat₂ tsuk,
tít₀ há²

Rain is falling*M.* 下雨 *hsia*⁴ *yü*³*S.* 落 „ *lauh* ‘*yui**C.* „ „ *lok*₂ ‘*yü***The leaves are falling***M.* 吊葉子 *tiao*⁴ *yêh*⁴-*tzü**S.* 樹葉落哉 *zu*³ *yih*
*lauh tse**C.* 落葉 *lok*₂ *yí*₂**False***M.* 假 *chia*³*S.* „ „ *‘ka**C.* „ „ *‘ká***Family***M.* 家 *chia*¹*S.* „ „ *ka**C.* „ „ *‘ká***Famine***M.* 飢荒 *chi*¹ *huang*¹*S.* 荒年 *hwaung nyien**C.* 飢荒 *‘kéi* *‘song***Famous***M.* 有名的 *yu*³ *ming*² *ti**S.* „ „ 聲格 *‘yau ming*
*sang kuh**C.* „ „ *‘yau* *‘ming***Fan***M.* 扇子 *shan*⁴-*tzü**S.* „ „ *sen*³ ‘*ts**C.* „ „ *shín*³**Far***M.* 遠 *yüan*³*S.* „ „ *‘yoen**C.* „ „ *‘yün***How —***M.* 有多遠 *yu*³ *to*¹ *yüan*³*S.* 幾化 „ *‘kyi hau*³ *‘yoen**C.* 有幾 „ *‘yau* *‘kéi* *‘yün***Farm***M.* 莊子 *chuang*¹-*tzü**S.* 田莊 *dien tsaung**C.* „ „ 庄 *‘t’in* *‘chong***Farmer***M.* 莊主 *chuang*¹ *chu*³*S.* „ „ *tsaung*³*tsu*; 種田
个 *tsong*² *dien kuh**C.* 農夫 *‘nung* *‘fú*; 耕田
佬 *‘káng* *‘t’in* *‘lò***Fat***M.* (sb.) 油 *yu*²; (adj.) 肥 *fei*²;
(of person) 胖 *p’ang*⁴*S.* (1) *yau*; (adj.) 奘 *tsaung*²;
(3) *p’auŋ*²*C.* (1) *yau*; 膏油 *kò* *yau*;
(2) *‘féi***Father***M.* 父親 *fu*⁴-*ch’in**S.* 爺 *ya*; 父 *‘voo**C.* 父親 *fú*² *‘ts’an*

Fault

M. 過 kuo⁴; 毛病 mao²
ping⁴; 錯兒 ts'o⁴ 'rh

S. (1) koo²; (2) mau bing²;

過失 koo² seh

C. (1) kwo²; 過失 kwo² shat,

It is your —

M. 是你的不是 shih⁴ ni³
ti pu² shih⁴

S. 是儂个勿是 'z nong²
kuh 'veh 'z

C. 呢啲係你過 ni oti
hai² 'néi kwo²

Fear

M. 怕 p'a⁴

S. „ p'o²

C. „ p'á²; 驚 keng⁺

February

M. 二月 êrh⁴ yüeh⁴

S. „ „ nyi² nyoeh

C. 英二月 ying yf² yüt_o

Feed (animals)

M. 餵 wei⁴

S. „ iui²

C. 喂 wai²; 餵 hái²

Feel

M. 覺 chüeh²

S. „ 着 kau dzak

C. „ kok_o

To feel pain

M. 覺疼 chüeh² t'êng²

S. „ 着痛 kau dzak t'ong²

C. 見痛 kín² t'ung²

Ferry

M. 擺渡 pai²-tu

S. „ „ 'pa doo²

C. 渡頭 tò² t'au

Fetch

M. 取 ch'u²; 取來 ch'u² lai²

S. 拿來 nau le; 担來 tan
le

C. 掙掙 cning lai

Fever

M. 熱病 jê⁴ ping⁴

S. „ „ nyih bing²

C. „ „ yft₂ peng²†

To have —

M. 發熱 fa¹ jê⁴; 發燒 fa¹
shao¹

S. (1) fah nyih

C. (1) fát_o yft₂

Few

M. 少 shao²; 不多 pu⁴ to¹

S. „ 'sau; 勿多 'veh too

C. „ 'shíú

A — persons

M. 幾個人 chi²-ko jên²

S. „ 个 „ 'kyi kuh nyung

C. „ 個 „ 'kéi ko' yan

A few days*M.* 幾天 *chi*³ *t'ien*¹*S.* „ 日 *'kyi nyih**C.* „ „ *'kéi yat*₂**Field***M.* 田 *t'ien*²*S.* „ *dien**C.* „ „ *t'in***Fight (vb.)***M.* 打架 *ta*³ *chia*⁴*S.* 相打 *siang* *'tang**C.* 打架 *tá* *ká*²; 打交 *tá*
káu

— (in battle)

M. 打仗 *ta*³ *chang*⁴*S.* „ „ *'tang tsang*³*C.* „ „ *tá chōng*³**Fill***M.* 倒滿 *tao*⁴ *man*³; 裝滿
*chuang*¹ *man*³*S.* (1) *'tau* *'men*; (2) *tsaung* *'men**C.* 充滿 *ch'ung* *'mún*; 斟
滿 *cham* *'mún***Final***M.* 終末 *chung*¹ *mo*⁴*S.* 末脚 *meh* *kyak**C.* 尾底 *'méi* *'tai***Find***M.* 找 *chao*³; 尋 *hsün*²*S.* „ *tsau*; „ *zing**C.* 搵 *'wan***I cannot find***M.* 我找不着 *wo*³ *chao*³
pu *chao*²*S.* „ 尋勿 „ *'ngoo zing*
*'veh dzak**C.* „ 唔搵得倒 *'ngo*
am *'wan tak*, *'tò***Cannot — out***M.* 不能查出 *pu*⁴ *nêng*²
*ch'a*² *ch'u*¹*S.* 查勿出 *dzo* *'veh ts'eh**C.* 不能查出 *pat*, *ang*
ch'a *ch'ut*, *'***To — time***M.* 抽空兒 *ch'ou*¹ *k'ung*¹ *'rh**S.* 偷 „ *t'eu kong**C.* 得閒 *tak*, *hán***Fine***M.* 細 *hsi*⁴*S.* „ *si*³*C.* 幼細 *yau*² *sai*³**Finger***M.* 指頭 *chih*³ *t'ou**S.* „ „ *tsih deu**C.* 手指 *'shau* *'chí***Finish***M.* 做成了 *tso*⁴ *ch'êng*² *lo*;
做完了 *tso*⁴ *wan*² *lo**S.* (1) *tsoo*³ *dzung*; (2) *tsoo*³ *wen**C.* (2) *tsò*² *yün*; 做起 *tsò*²
'héi

Fire*M.* 火 *huo*³*S.* „ „ *‘hoo**C.* „ „ *‘fo***To set — to***M.* 放火 *fang*⁴ *huo*³*S.* „ „ *faung*³ *‘hoo**C.* „ „ *fong*³ *‘fo***To light a —***M.* 點火 *tien*³ *huo*³*S.* „ „ *‘tien* *‘hoo**C.* 透火 *t’au*² (or *‘t’au*) *‘fo***Firm***M.* 堅固 *chien*¹ *ku**S.* „ „ *kyien* *‘koo*; 牢 *lau**C.* „ „ *‘kín kwú*²**The table is not —***M.* 桌子不穩當 *cho*¹-
*tzú pu*⁴ *wên*³-*tang**S.* 檯子勿牢 *de* *‘ts* *‘veh*
*lau**C.* 個張檯唔穩陣 *ko*²
‘chöng *‘t’oi*^{*} *‘m* *‘wan chan*²
— (sb.)*M.* 行 *hang*²*S.* „ „ *‘aung**C.* „ „ *‘hong***First***M.* 第一 *ti*⁴ *i*¹; 頭一個
*t’ou*² *i*¹ *ko*⁴*S.* (1) *di*² *ih*; (2) *deu ih kuk**C.* (1) *tai*² *yat*; (2) *‘t’au yat*, *ko*²**At first***M.* 頭裏 *t’ou*²-*li**S.* „ „ *deu li**C.* 先頭 *‘sín* *‘t’au***The — of the month***M.* 初 — *ch*¹ *u*¹ *i*¹*S.* „ „ *ts’oo ih**C.* „ „ *‘ch’o yat*,
*‘ch’ing yüt*₂**The — month***M.* 正月 *chêng*⁴ *yüeh*⁴*S.* „ „ *tsung nyoe**h**C.* „ „ *‘ching yüt*₂**The — time***M.* 頭一次 *t’ou*² *i*¹ *tz’ü*⁴*S.* „ „ 回 *deu ih we**C.* „ „ 次 *‘t’au yat*, *ts’z*²**Do this —***M.* 先做這個 *hsien*¹ *tso*⁴
*chê*⁴-*ko**S.* „ „ 第个 *sien tsoo*²
*di*² *kuh**C.* „ „ 呢啲 *‘sín* *tsò*²
‘ni *‘tí***Fish***M.* 魚 *yü*²*S.* „ „ *ng**C.* „ „ *‘yü*^{*}**Salt —***M.* 鹹魚 *hsien*² *yü*²*S.* „ „ *‘an ng**C.* „ „ *‘hám yü*^{*}

To fish

M. 釣魚 tiaó⁴ yü²; (net) 打魚 ta³ yü²

S. (1) tiaú³ ng; (net) 扳魚 pan ng

C. (1) tífú² yü²*; (net) 'tá yü²*

Five

M. 五 wu³

S. „ 'ng

C. „ 'ng

Flag

M. 旗 ch'í²

S. „ ji

C. „ ǵk'ei

Flat (article)

M. 扁 pien³

S. „ 'pien

C. „ p'in²

—— (land)

M. 平 p'ing²

S. „ bing

C. „ p'ing

Flea

M. 蛇蚤 ko⁴-tsao

S. 蚤虱 'tsau seh

C. 狗 „ 'kaú shat,

Fleet (sb.)

M. 一班 (or 幫) 船 i¹ pan¹
(or pang¹) ch'uan²

S. 一隊船 ih de² zen; 一群船 ih juin zen

C. 一幫船 yat, pong ǵshün;

一起船 yat, 'héi ǵshün

Flesh

M. 肉 jou⁴

S. „ nyok

C. „ yuk₂

Floor

M. 地板 ti⁴ pan³

S. „ „ di² 'pan

C. 樓 „ ǵlau²* 'pán; (ground floor) 地臺 téi² ǵ'oi

Flour

M. 麵 mien⁴

S. 粉 fung

C. 麵粉 min² 'fan

Flow (vb.)

M. 流 liu²

S. „ lieu

C. „ ǵlau

Fly (sb.)

M. 蒼蠅 ts'ang¹-ying

S. „ „ ts'aung iung

C. 鳥 „ ǵwú ǵying

—— (vb.)

M. 飛 fei¹

S. „ fi

C. „ ǵfei

Fog

M. 霧 wu⁴; 下霧 hsia⁴ wu⁴S. „ 露 'oo' loo³; 下霧露 'au 'oo' loo³C. 矇霧 ɿmung mò²

Follow

M. 隨 sui²; 追 chui¹S. 跟 kung; 跟從 kung
dzong; (2) tsoe

C. „ 從 ɿkan ɿts'ung

— me

M. 隨我來 sui² wo³ lai²

S. 跟 „ „ kung 'ngoo le

C. „ „ 去 (or 嚟) ɿkan
'ngo hui² (or ɿlai)

— the river

M. 順着河 shun⁴ cho ho²S. „ 則 „ zung² tsuh 'ooC. 跟個條河嚟行 ɿkan
ko² ɿt'fú cho ɿlai ɿháng⁺

Food

M. 吃食 ch'ih¹ shih; 喫的東西 ch'ih¹ ti tung¹-
hsi; 飯 fan⁴S. (1) chuh zuh; 喫个物
事 chuh kuh meh z²; (3)
van²C. 食物 shik₂ mat₂; 伙食
fo shik₂

To cook food

M. 做飯 tso⁴ fan⁴S. 燒 „ sau van²C. 煮 „ 'chü fan²

Foot

M. 脚 chiao³

S. „ kyak

C. „ kök_o

To go on —

M. 步下走 pu⁴ hsia⁴ tsou³S. „ 行 boo² 'angC. 行路去 ɿháng⁺ lə² hui²

— of a hill

M. 山根兒 shan¹ kê(n)¹-rh

S. „ 脚 san kyak

C. „ „ ɿshan kök_o

— (measure)

M. 尺 (= 14.1 in. English) ch'ih³

S. „ ts'ak

C. „ ch'ek_o⁺

Footprints

M. 脚印兒 chiao³ yi(n)⁴-rhS. „ „ 子 kyak iung² 'tsC. „ „ kök_o yan²

For

Buy it — me

M. 給我買 kei³ wo³ mai³S. 替 „ „ t'i² 'ngoo 'ma

C. 同 „ „ ɿtung 'ngo ɿmái

For instance

M. 比方 pi³-fang

S. „ „ pi faung

C. „ 如 'péi gyū

There are provisions —
three years

M. 有三年的糧食 yu³
san¹ nien³ ti liang²-shih

S. 有三年个糧食 'yeu
san nyien kuh liang zuh

C. 有三年之糧食 'yaú
sám gín chí lǒng shik₂

— what reason

M. 因爲甚麼 yin¹-wei²
shê(n)²-mo

S. 爲啥 we³ sa²; 爲啥緣
故 we³ sa² yoen koo³

C. 爲乜緣故 wai² mat,
gyūn kwú²

Forbid

M. 禁止 chin⁴ chih³

S. „ „ kyung 'ts

C. „ „ kam³ 'chí

To — the sale

M. 禁止賣 chin⁴ chih³ mai⁴

S. „ „ „ kyung 'ts ma³

C. „ „ „ kam³ 'chí mái²

I — you to go out

M. 我總不許你出去
wo³ tsung³ pu hsi³ ni³
ch'ü¹ ch'ü¹

S. 我勿許儂出去

'ngoo 'veh 'hyui nong³
ts'eh chí²

C. 我總不許你出去

'ngo 'tsung pat, 'hui 'néi
ch'ut, hui²

Ford

M. 淺水 ch'ien³ shui³

S. „ „ 'ts'ien 's

C. 津 tsun

Is there a — ?

M. 有淺渡麼 yu³ ch'ien³
tu⁴ mo

S. 阿有淺渡 'a 'yeu 'ts'ien
doo²

C. 有涉水處有呀 'yaú
shíp, 'shui ch'ü² 'mò á²

Foreign

M. 外 wai⁴; 洋 yang²

S. „ nga³; „ yang

C. „ ngoi²; „ gyōng

— countries

M. 外國 wai⁴ kuo²

S. „ „ nga³ kok

C. „ „ ngoi² kwok

— goods

M. 洋貨 yang² huo⁴

S. „ „ yang hoo³

C. „ „ gyōng fo²

Forest*M.* 樹林子 *shu' lin²-tzǔ**S.* „ „ *zu' ling**C.* „ „ *shü² lam***Forget***M.* 忘 *wang⁴**S.* „ *maung²*; 忘記 *maung² kyi²**C.* 唔記得 *ɿm kɛi² tak²*;忘記 *ɿmong kɛi²**I will not* —*M.* 我忘不了 *wo³ wang⁴ pu liao³**S.* „ 勿忘記 *'ngoo 'veh maung² kyi²**C.* „ 是必 „ 得 *ɿngo shɿ² pɿt², kɛi² tak²***Forgive***M.* 饒 *jao²*; 寬免 *k'uan¹ mien³**S.* (ɿ) *nyau*; 饒恕 *nyau 'so**C.* 赦免 *she² ɿmfn*— *him**M.* 饒恕他 *jao² shu t'a¹**S.* „ „ 伊 *nyau 'so yi**C.* 赦佢罪 *she² ɿk'ui tsui²***Fork***M.* 叉子 *ch'a¹-tzǔ**S.* „ „ *ts'o**C.* „ „ *ch'á***A forked road***M.* 岔道 *ch'a⁴ tao⁴**S.* 叉路 *ts'o loo²**C.* 開丫路 *hoi á lò²***Fort***M.* 砲臺 *p'ao⁴ t'ai²**S.* „ „ *p'au² de**C.* „ „ *p'áu² t'oi***Fortify***M.* 築圍 *chu² wei²**S.* „ „ *tsauh we**C.* „ „ *chuk, ɿwai***Fortunate***M.* 吉 *chi²*; 有造化的 *yu³ tsao⁴-hua ti**S.* „ 利 *kyih li²*; 運氣好 *yuin² chi² 'hau**C.* (ɿ) *kat²*; 好彩 *'hò 'ts'oi*
好命 *'hò meng² +***He is** —*M.* 他運氣好 *t'a¹ yün⁴-ch'i hao³**S.* 伊 „ „ „ *yi yuin² chi² 'hau**C.* 佢好彩 *ɿk'ui 'hò 'ts'oi***Forty***M.* 四十 *ssü⁴ shih²**S.* „ „ *s² seh**C.* „ „ *sz² shap²*

FourM. 四 ssü⁴S. „ s²C. „ sz²**France**M. 法國 fa⁴ kuo²

S. „ „ fah kok

C. „ „ fát_o kwok_o**Free (independent)**M. 自由 tzü⁴ yu²; 自主
tzü⁴ chu³S. (1) z² yeu; (2) z² 'tsuC. (1) tsz² yau²; (2) tsz² 'chü**French**M. 法國的 fa⁴ kuo² ti

S. „ „ 个 fah kok kuh

C. „ „ 嘅 fát_o kwok_o ke²**Fresh**M. 新鮮 hsin¹-hsien

S. „ „ sing sien

C. „ „ san_o sín

— water

M. 甜水 t'ien² shui³S. „ „ dien 's; 淡水
'dan 's

C. 淡水 t'ám 'shui

FridayM. 禮拜五 li³ pai wu³

S. „ „ „ 'li pa 'ng

C. „ „ „ 'lai pai² 'ng**Friend**M. 朋友 p'êng² yu; 相好
的 hsiang¹ hao³ tiS. (1) bang 'yeu; 相好 siang
'hau

C. (1) p'ang 'yau

FrightenM. 嚇呼 hsia⁴-hu¹

S. „ hak

C. „ hák₂He is frightened and dares
not goM. 他嚇的不敢去 t'a¹
hsia⁴ ti pu⁴ kan³ ch'ü⁴S. 伊嚇得勿敢去 yi
hak tuh 'veh 'ken chí²C. 佢慌唔敢去 'k'ui
fong m 'kom hui²**From**

Where do you come — ?

M. 你打那兒來 ni³ ta³
na³ 'rh lai²S. 儂從那裏來 nong
dzong 'a 'li leC. 你由邊處嚟 'néi
yau² pín shü² 'lai

— Shanghai to Hankow

M. 從上海到漢口
ts'ung² shang⁴-hai tao⁴
han⁴-k'ou³S. 從上海到漢口
dzong 'zaung 'he tau² han
'k'eu

From Shanghai to Hankow
(continued)

C. 由上海至漢口
yau shōng² 'hoi chi' hon'
'haú

Front

M. 前頭 ch'ien²-t'ou; 正
面 chēng⁴ mien⁴

S. (1) zien deu; (2) tsung² mien²

C. (1) ts'ín² t'au²; (2) ching² mfn²

— door

M. 前門 ch'ien² mēn²

S. " " zien mung

C. " " ts'ín² mún²

The — (mil.)

M. 戰線 chan⁴ hsien⁴

S. " " tsen² sien²

C. " " chín² sín²

Frost

M. 霜 shuang¹; 下霜 hsia⁴
shuang¹

S. " " saung

C. " sōng; 落霜 lok²
sōng

Fruit

M. 菓子 kuo³-tzǔ

S. " " 'koo-'ts

C. " 'kwo

Fuel

M. 柴火 ch'ai²-huo³

S. " " za

C. " shái (ch'ái); 薪 san

Full

M. 滿 man³

S. " 'men

C. " 'mún

Funeral

M. 喪事 sang¹ shih⁴

S. " " saung² z'; 出喪
ts'eh saung

C. " " song sz²; 殯葬
pan² tsong²

To attend a —

M. 送殯 sung⁴ pin⁴

S. " 喪 song² saung

C. " 殯 sung² pan²; 送葬
sung² tsong²

Funnel

M. 漏斗 lou⁴ tou³

S. " " leu² 'teu

C. " 砵 lau² pút²

— of a steamer

M. 烟筩 yen¹ t'ung

S. " " ien t'ong

C. " " yín t'ung

Furniture

M. 傢伙 chia¹-huo

S. " " ka 'hoo

C. " 私什物 cá² sz
shap² mat²

Further

M. 更遠 kēng⁴ yüan³

Further (continued)

S. 愈 „ yui 'yoen; 更加

遠 kung' ka 'yoen

C. 更遠 kang' 'yün; 遠

啲 'yün .ti

GaleM. 大風 ta' fêng¹

S. „ „ doo' fong

C. „ „ tái² 風**Gallop**M. 跑 p'áo³

S. „ „ bau

C. „ „ p'áu

GardenM. 園子 yüan²-tzü; 花園
hua¹ yüan²

S. „ „ yoen; (2) hwo yoen

C. (2) fá 'yün*

GasM. 煤氣 mei² chí⁴S. „ „ me chí²C. „ „ 'múi héi²**Gate**M. 門 mên²

S. „ „ mung

C. 閘 cháp.

GearM. 器具 chí⁴ chü⁴S. „ „ chí² jui²C. „ „ héi² kui²**Gear (machinery)**M. 撥齒輪 po¹ ch'ih³ lun²

S. „ „ „ peh 'is' lung

C. 機械 k'ái hái²**General (sb.)**M. 將軍 chiang⁴ chün¹; 大帥 ta⁴ shuai⁴; 提督t'í²-tu; 陸軍上將 lu⁴chün¹ shang⁴ chiang¹S. (1) tsiang kyuin; (2) doo'
se²; (3) di tok; (4) lok
kyuin zaung tsiangC. (1) tsöng kwan; (4) luk₂
kwan 'shöng tsöng**Major —**M. 陸軍中將 lu⁴ chün
chung¹ chiang¹S. „ „ „ „ lok kyuin
tsong tsiangC. „ „ „ „ luk₂ kwan
chung tsöng**— term**M. 總名 tsung³ ming²

S. „ „ 'tsong ming

C. „ „ 'tsung ming

GentryM. 紳士 shên¹-shih; 鄉紳
hsiang¹ shên¹

S. (1) sung 'z; (2) hyang sung

C. (1) 'shan sz²*; 紳士 tsun'
shan; (2) höng shan

Genuine

- M. 真 chên¹ ●
 S. „ tsung
 C. „ çhan

Geomancy

- M. 風水 fêng¹ shui³
 S. „ „ fong 's
 C. „ „ çfung 'shui

Germany

- M. 德國 tê² kuo²
 S. „ „ tuh kok
 C. „ „ tak, kwok_o

Get

- M. 得 tê²
 S. „ 着 tuh dzak
 C. „ tak,

To — one's wish

- M. 得意 tê² i⁴
 S. „ „ tuh i³
 C. „ „ tak, yf

Girl

- M. 女兒 nü³ -'rh; 姑娘
 ku¹-niang
 S. „ 囡 'nyui noen; (2) koo
 nyang
 C. „ 仔 'nui 'tsai; (2) çkwú
 çnǒng

Servant —

- M. 丫頭 ya¹-t'ou
 S. „ „ au deu
 C. „ „ á t'áu

Give

- M. 給 kei³; 交 chiao¹; 送
 sung⁴
 S. 撥 peh; (2) kau; (3) song²
 C. 俾 'péi; (2) káu; (3) sung²

— me that

- M. 給我那個 kei³ wo³
 na⁴-ko
 S. 儂撥伊个我 nong²
 peh i kuh 'ngoo
 C. 俾个個過我 'péi
 'ko ko' kwo' 'ngo

— it to him (as a present)

- M. 送他 sung⁴ t'a¹
 S. „ 伊 song² yi
 C. „ 俾佢 sung² 'péi k'ui

Glad

- M. 喜歡 hsi³ huan
 S. „ „ 'hyi hwen; 快活
 k'a' weh
 C. „ „ 'héi çfún (or çfún 'héi)

Glass

- M. 玻璃 po¹ li
 S. „ „ poo li
 C. „ „ po l'ei

A looking —

- M. 鏡子 ching⁴-tzü
 S. „ „ kyung² 'ts
 C. „ keng²+; 面鏡 min²
 keng²+

A wine glass*M.* 酒杯 *chiu³ pēi¹**S.* „ „ *‘tsieu pe**C.* „ „ *‘tsau₂ pui***Go***M.* 去 *ch‘ü⁴*; 上 *shang⁴**S.* „ *chī³*; „ *‘zaung**C.* „ *hui³***Don't —***M.* 別去 *pieh² ch‘ü⁴**S.* 勿要去 *‘veh iau³ chī³**C.* 唔好 „ *ɿm ‘hò hui³***Where are you going?***M.* 你往那裏去 *ni³**wang³ na³-li ch‘ü⁴**S.* 儂到那裏去 *nong²**tau³ ‘a ‘li chī³**C.* 你去邊(處) *‘néi hui³*
*ópín (shū²)***Goat***M.* 山羊 *shan¹ yang²**S.* „ „ *san yang**C.* „ „ *śhán yǒng²***God***M.* 上帝 *shang⁴ ti⁴*; 天 *t‘ien¹**S.* „ „ *‘zang ti³*; „ *t‘ien**C.* „ „ *shōng² tai³***Godown***M.* 棧房 *chan⁴ fang²**S.* „ „ *‘dzan vaung**C.* „ „ *chán² fong^{*}***Gold***M.* 金 *chin¹*; 金子 *chin¹-tzǔ**S.* „ *kyung*; „ „ *kyung ‘ts**C.* „ *cam***Made of —***M.* 金子做的 *chin¹-tzǔ*
*tso⁴ ti**S.* „ „ „ 个 *kyung ‘ts*
*tsoo³ kuh**C.* „ 做嘅 *cam tsò² ke³***Gong***M.* 鑼 *lo²**S.* „ *loo**C.* „ *lo***Good***M.* 好 *hao³*; 善 *shan⁴**S.* „ *‘hau*; „ *‘zen**C.* „ *‘hò*; „ *shín²***Is it —?***M.* 好不好 *hao³ pu hao³**S.* „ 勿 „ *‘hau ‘veh ‘hau**C.* „ 唔 „ *‘ho ɿm ‘hò***— to eat***M.* 好吃的 *hao³ ch‘ih¹ ti**S.* „ „ 个 *‘hau chuh kuh**C.* „ 食 *‘hò shik₂*

Good for nothing

M. 不中用 pu⁴ chung⁴
yung⁴

S. 勿 „ „ 'veh tsong
yong²

C. 有用 ȳmò yung²; 唔中
用 ȳm ȳchung yung²

Goods

M. 貨 huó⁴

S. „ hoo²

C. „ fo²

Goose

M. 鵝 o²

S. „ ngoo

C. „ ȳngo

Govern

M. 管 kuan³; 治理 chih⁴ li³

S. „ 'kwen; „ „ dz² 'li

C. „ 'kwún; „ „ chf² ȳlèi

To — the country

M. 治國 chih⁴ kuo²

S. „ „ dz² kok

C. „ „ chf² kwok_o

Government

M. 國政 kuo² chêng⁴

S. „ „ kok tsung²; 政治
tsung² dz²

C. „ „ kwok_o ching²

Government, the

M. 政府 chêng⁴ fu; 國家
kuo² chia

S. (1) tsung² foo; (2) kok kya

C. (1) ching² 'fú; (2) kwok_o ȳká

— officers

M. 官 kuan¹

S. „ kwen

C. „ ȳkwún

Governor

M. 總督 tsung³-tu; 巡撫
hsün²-fu

S. (1) 'tsong tok; (2) dzing 'foo

C. (1) 'tsung tuk; (2) ȳts'un 'fú

Gradually

M. 漸漸 chieh⁴ chieh⁴

S. „ „ 'dzien 'dzien

C. „ „ tsim² tsim²*

Granary

M. 倉 ts'ang¹

S. „ ts'aung

C. „ 房 ts'ong ȳfong; 穀
倉 kuk, ȳts'ong

Grass

M. 草 ts'ao³

S. „ ts'au

C. „ 'ts'ò

Grateful

M. 感激 kan³-chi¹

S. „ „ 'ken kyi

C. „ 恩 'kom ȳan

Grateful for favours

- M.* 感恩 kan³ ên¹
S. „ „ 'ken ung
C. „ „ 'kom yan

Grave (sb.)

- M.* 墳 fên²; 墳墓 fên² mu⁴
S. „ vung
C. „ ɕfan; „ „ ɕfan mò²

Great

- M.* 大 ta⁴
S. „ doo²
C. „ tái²

Green

- M.* 綠 lü⁴
S. „ lok
C. „ luk₂

Grey

- M.* 灰色 hui¹ sê⁴
S. „ „ hwe suh
C. „ „ ɕfui shik,

Grind

- M.* 磨 mo²
S. „ moo
C. „ ɕmo

Ground

- M.* 地 ti⁴
S. „ di²
C. „ téi²

On the —

- M.* 地下 ti⁴ hsia⁴

S. 地上 di² laung²

- C.* „ 下 téi² há²; 在地下
 tsoi² téi² há²

To — (as a vessel)

- M.* 搁淺 ko¹ ch'ien³
S. „ „ kauh 'ts'ien
C. „ „ kok₀ 'ts'in

Guard (sb.)

- M.* 護衛的兵 hu⁴ wei⁴ ti
 ping¹; 衛隊 wei² tui⁴
S. 護衛兵 'oo' we' ping;
 (2) we' de'
C. 護衛之兵 wú² wai² ɕchi
 ɕping; (2) wai² tui²

— (vb.)

- M.* 守 shou³; 把守 pa³ shou³;
 護 hu⁴
S. (1) 'seu; (3) 'oo'
C. (1) 'shaú; 保守 'pò
 'shaú; 防護 ɕfong wú²

Guild (hall)

- M.* 會館 hui⁴-kuan³
S. „ „ we' 'kwen
C. „ „ wú² 'kwún

Guilty

- M.* 有罪 yu³ tsui⁴
S. „ „ 'yeu dzoe
C. „ „ 'yaú tsui²

Gun (cannon)*M.* 炮 p'ao⁴*S.* „ p'au²*C.* „ p'áu²

— (fire-arms)

M. 鎗 ch'iang¹*S.* „ ts'iang*C.* „ 〇ts'öng**Butt of a** —*M.* 鎗托子 ch'iang¹ t'o¹-tzü*S.* „ „ ts'iang t'auh*C.* „ „ 〇ts'öng t'ok_o**Trigger of a** —*M.* 鎗機子 ch'iang¹ chi¹-tzü*S.* „ „ ts'iang kyi*C.* „ „ 〇ts'öng k'ei**Barrel of a** —*M.* 鎗筒 ch'iang¹ t'ung³*S.* „ 管 ts'iang 'kwen*C.* „ 筒 〇ts'öng t'ung; 鎗
身 〇ts'öng shan

— powder

M. 火藥 huo³ yao⁴*S.* „ „ 'hoo yak*C.* „ „ 'fo yök₂**To fire a** —*M.* 放鎗 fang⁴ ch'iang¹*S.* „ „ faung² ts'iang*C.* „ „ fong² 〇ts'öng**Gun, to load a***M.* 裝鎗 chuang¹ ch'iang¹*S.* „ „ tsaung ts'iang*C.* „ „ 〇chong 〇ts'öng**Hail (sb.)***M.* 雹子 pao²-tzü*S.* 冰雹 ping bauh*C.* 雹 pok₂

— (vb.)

M. 下雹子 hsia⁴ pao²-tzü*S.* 落冰雹 lauh ping bauh*C.* „ 雹 lok₂ pok₂**Hair (human)***M.* 頭髮 t'ou²-fa³*S.* „ „ deu fah*C.* „ „ 〇t'áu fát_o

— (of animals)

M. 毛 mao²*S.* „ mau*C.* „ 〇mò**Half***M.* 半 pan⁴*S.* „ pen²*C.* „ pún²**Halt***M.* 站住 chan⁴-chu⁴*S.* 停拉 ding la²*C.* 立定 láp₂ ting²

Ham

- M.* 火腿 huó³-t'ui³
S. „ „ 'hoo t'e
C. „ „ 'fo t'ui

Hammer

- M.* 鎚子 ch'ui²-tzǔ
S. 榔頭 laung deu
C. 鎚 t's'ui

Hand

- M.* 手 shou³
S. „ „ 'seu
C. „ „ 'shau

Lend a —

- M.* 幫忙 pang¹ mang²
S. „ „ paung maung
C. 帮助 t'pong cho²

Handkerchief

- M.* 手巾 shou³-chin¹
S. „ „ 'seu kyung
C. „ „ 'shau kan

Hang

- M.* 吊 tiao⁴; 掛 kua⁴
S. „ tiau³; „ kwo³
C. „ tiú³; „ kwá³

Happen

- M.* 遇 yü⁴; 逢 fêng²
S. 碰着 bang³ dzak; 生 sang
C. (1) yü²; (2) t'fung

What has happened?

- M.* 怎麼了 tsê(n)³-mo lo
S. 有啥碰着 'yeu sa'
 bang dzak
C. 遇着乜事呢 yü²-chök₂
 mat, sz² ni

What happened then?

- M.* 後來怎麼樣 hou⁴-
 lai² tsê(n)³-mo yang⁴
S. „ „ 那能呢 'eu le
 na³ nung nyi
C. 個陣時遇着乜
 事呢 'ko chan² t'shí* yü²
 chök₂ mat, sz² ni

Harbour

- M.* 海口 hai³ k'ou³; 港口
 chiang³ k'ou³
S. (1) 'he k'eu; (2) 'kaung k'eu
C. (1) 'hoi 'haú; (2) 'kong 'haú

— master

- M.* 理船廳 li³ ch'uan² t'ing¹
S. „ „ „ 'li zen t'ing
C. 船政 „ t'shün ching³
 t'eng†

Hard

- M.* 硬 ying⁴
S. „ ngang³
C. „ ngáng²; 實 shat₂

— (difficult)

- M.* 難 nan²
S. „ nan
C. „ nan

Hardship*M.* 苦 k'u³; 難 nan²*S.* „ „ k'oo; „ nan²*C.* „ 情 'fú ɿts'ing**Hat***M.* 帽子 mao⁴-tzũ*S.* „ „ mau³ 'ts*C.* „ mò²***Hate***M.* 恨 hên⁴*S.* „ „ 'ung²*C.* „ han²; 恨怒 han² nò²**Have***M.* 有 yu³*S.* „ „ 'yeu*C.* „ „ 'yau**Hay***M.* 乾草 kan¹ ts'ao³*S.* „ „ koen ts'au*C.* „ „ ɿkon ts'ò**He***M.* 他 t'a¹*S.* 伊 yi*C.* 佢 ɿk'ui**Head***M.* 頭 t'ou²; 腦袋 nao³-tai⁴*S.* „ „ deu*C.* „ „ ɿt'au**Head (leader)***M.* 領頭人 ling³-t'ou²-jên²*S.* „ „ „ 'ling deu nyung*C.* 頭目 ɿt'au muk²**To be at the — of***M.* 管 kuan³; 領 ling³*S.* „ „ kwen; „ 'ling*C.* 做頭目 tsò² ɿt'au muk²**— ache***M.* 腦袋疼 nao³-tai⁴ t'êng²*S.* 頭痛 deu t'ong²*C.* „ „ 刺 ɿt'au ts'ek⁰†**Healthy***M.* 身子好 shên¹-tzũ hao³;好精身 hao³ ching¹
shên¹*S.* 身體好 sung t'i 'hau;強壯 'jang tsaung²*C.* 壯健 chong² kín²**Heap***M.* 堆 tui¹*S.* „ „ te*C.* „ „ ɿtui**Hear***M.* 聽見 t'ing¹-chien*S.* „ „ t'ing kyien²*C.* „ „ ɿt'eng† kín²

Hear, unable to*M.* 聽不見 t'ing¹ pu chien⁴*S.* „ 勿 „ t'ing 'veh kyien³*C.* 唔聽得見 ɿm ɿt'eng⁺ tak₃ kín³**Able to —***M.* 聽得見 t'ing¹ tê chien⁴*S.* „ „ „ t'ing tuh kyien³*C.* „ „ „ ɿt'eng⁺ tak₃ kín³**Heart***M.* 心 hsin¹*S.* „ sing*C.* „ ɿsam**Heat***M.* 熱 jê⁴; (weather) 天熱 t'ien¹ jê⁴*S.* (1) nyih; (weather) (2) t'ien nyih*C.* (1) yít₂; (weather) 熱氣 yít₂ hčí³**Prickly —***M.* 癩子 fei⁴-tzŭ*S.* „ 瘡 be³ ts'aung*C.* 熱癩 yit₂ fai³***Heaven***M.* 天 t'ien¹*S.* „ t'ien*C.* „ ɿ'ín**Heavy***M.* 重 chung⁴; 沉 ch'ên²*S.* „ 'dzong*C.* „ ɿeh'ung⁺**Too heavy***M.* 太沉 t'ai⁴ ch'ên²*S.* 忒重 t'uh 'dzong*C.* 重過頭 ɿch'ung⁺ kwo³ ɿt'au**Heel***M.* 腳後跟 chiao³ hou⁴-kên¹*S.* „ 跟 kyak kung*C.* „ 脰 kök₀ ɿcháng**Help***M.* 幫助 pang¹ chu⁴*S.* „ „ paung dzoo³*C.* „ „ ɿpong cho²**Mutual —***M.* 相幫 hsiang¹ pang¹*S.* „ „ siang paung*C.* „ „ ɿsöng ɿpong**It can't be helped***M.* 無奈何 wu² nai⁴ ho²;沒法子 mei² fa²-tzŭ*S.* (2) meh fah ɿts*C.* (1) ɿmò noi² ɿho**Her***M.* 他 t'ai¹*S.* 伊 yi*C.* 佢 ɿk'ui

Here

M. 這裏 chē⁴-li; 這兒
chē⁴-rh

S. 此地 'ts' di'

C. 呢處 ni shū²; 呢箇 ni
tát_o; 呢定 ni teng²*

Wait —

M. 在這兒等 tsai⁴ che⁴
'rh tēng³

S. 等拉 'tung la

C. 喺呢處等 'hai ni
shū² 'tang

Hide

M. 藏 ts'ang²

S. „ 囤 dzaung k'aung²

C. „ 埋 ts'ong mái; 柄
peng²† mái

High

M. 高 kao

S. „ kau

C. „ kò

Fifty feet —

M. 高五丈 kao¹ wu³ chang⁴

S. 五丈高 'ng dzang kau

C. 高五丈 kò 'ng chōng²

Hill

M. 山 shan¹

S. „ san

C. „ shán

The top of a hill

M. 山頂 shan¹ ting³

S. „ „ san 'ting

C. „ „ shán 'teng†

Him

M. 他 t'a¹

S. 伊 yi

C. 佢 k'ui

Hinder

M. 攔阻 lan²-tsu³; 掣肘
ch'ê⁴ chou³

S. 阻擋 'tsoo taung²; 攔
住 lan dzu²

C. (1) lán 'cho; 阻住 'cho
chū²

Hire (vb.)

M. 雇 ku⁴

S. „ 'koo

C. „ kwú²

His

M. 他的 t'a¹ ti

S. 伊个 yi kuh

C. 佢嘅 k'ui ke²; 佢啲
k'ui ōi

Hit

M. 打 ta³

S. „ 'tang

C. „ 'tá

To hit the mark

- M.* 打中了 ta³ chung⁴ lo
S. „ „ 'tang tsong'
C. „ „ 'tá chung'

Hither

- M.* 到這兒 tao⁴ chē⁴-'rh
S. „ „ 此地 tau³ 'ts' di'
C. „ „ 呢處 tò³ 'ni shü'

Hold

- M.* 拏 na²
S. 捻 nyah
C. 揸 chá

To — in the hand

- M.* 手裏拏着 shou³ li
 na² cho
S. 捻在手裏 nyah 'dze
 'seu 'li
C. 揸手 chá 'shau'

To — in the arms

- M.* 抱着 pao⁴ cho
S. „ „ 'bau
C. „ „ 'p'ò

To — fast

- M.* 持住 ch'ih² chu⁴; 拏住
 na² chu⁴
S. 捻牢 nyah lau
C. 揸緊 chá 'kan

How much does it hold?

- M.* 裝多少 chuang¹ to¹-
 shao³
S. „ „ 幾化 tsaung 'kyi hau'
C. „ „ 多呢 chong 'kéf
 to 'ni

The — (of a vessel)

- M.* 船艙 ch'uan² ts'ang¹
S. „ „ zen ts'aung
C. „ „ cshün 'ts'ong

Hole

- M.* 窟窿 k'u¹-lung
S. 洞 dong'
C. 寵 lung (or lung)

Home

- M.* 家 chia¹
S. 屋裡 ok 'li
C. 家 ká; 歸 kwai

He is not at —

- M.* 他沒在家 t'a¹ mei²
 tsai⁴ chia¹
S. 伊勿 „ 屋裡 yi 'veh
 'dze ok 'li
C. 佢唔在家 k'ui 'm tsoi²
 ká

Honest

- M.* 忠厚 chung¹ hou⁴; 老
 實 lao³-shih²
S. (1) tsong 'eu; (2) 'lau zeh
C. (1) chung hau²; (2) 'lò shat₂

Hook

M. 鈎子 kou¹-tzũ

S. „ keu

C. „ ɲgau

Hope

M. 盼望 p'an⁴ wang; 指望 chih³ wang⁴

S. 巴 „ po maung²; (2) tsih maung²

C. (1) p'an² mong²; (2) 'chí mong²

Without —

M. 沒望兒 mei² wang⁴-rh

S. 無 „ 頭 m maung² deu

C. „ 所望 ɲmò 'sho mong²

Horse

M. 馬 ma³

S. „ 'mo

C. 'má

A —

M. 一匹馬 i¹ p'í³ ma³

S. „ „ „ ih p'ih 'mo

C. „ „ „ yat, p'at, 'má

To saddle a —

M. 備馬 pei⁴ ma³

S. 裝 „ tsaung 'mo

C. 上鞍 shōng ɲon

To ride a —

M. 騎馬 ch'í² ma³

S. „ „ ji 'mo

C. „ „ ɲk'e 'má

He has come on horse-back

M. 他是騎馬來的 t'a¹ shih⁴ ch'í² ma³ lai² ti

S. 伊騎馬來个 yi ji 'mo le kuh

C. 佢 „ „ 嚟 ɲk'ui ɲk'e 'má ɲai

To shoe a —

M. 釘掌 ting¹ chang³

S. „ 馬脚鐵 ting 'mo kyak t'ih

C. „ „ 夾 ɲteng¹ 'má káp.

Horseshoe

M. 馬掌 ma³ chang³

S. „ 脚鐵 'mo kyak t'ih

C. „ 夾 'má káp.

Hospital

M. 病院 ping¹ yüan⁴

S. „ „ bing yoen²; 醫院 i yoen²

C. 醫館 yí 'kwún; 醫院 yí yun²*

Hostile

M. 敵 ti²; 結讐 了 chieh² ch'ou² lo

S. „ dih; „ 冤家 kyih ioen kah

C. „ tik₂; 對敵 tui² tik₂

Hot

M. 熱 jê⁴

S. „ nyih

C. „ yít₂

It is beginning to get hot

M. 熱起來了 jê⁴ ch'í lai² lo

S. „ „ „ „ nyih 'chi' le
liao²

C. „ „ 嚟 yit₂ 'héi lai

The — season

M. 熱天 jê⁴ t'ien¹

S. „ „ nyih t'ien

C. 夏 „ há² t'ín

Hour

One —

M. 一點鐘 i tien³ chung¹;

一下鐘 i hsia⁴ chung¹

S. (1) ih 'tien tsong

C. (1) yat, 'tím chung

A quarter of an —

M. 一刻 i¹ k'o⁴

S. „ „ ih k'uh

C. „ 喺 yat, kwat,

House

M. 房子 fang²-tzũ

S. „ „ vaung 'ts

C. 屋 uk,

A thatched —

M. 草房 ts'ao³ fang²

S. „ 屋 ts'au ok

C. 茅 „ máu uk,

A row of houses

M. 一溜房子 i¹ liu² fang²-
tzũ

S. „ 帶 „ „ ih ta³ vaung
'ts

C. „ 行 (or 刺) 屋 yat,
'hong (or lát₂) uk,

How?

M. 怎麼 tsê(n)³-mo

S. 那能 na³ nung

C. 點 'tím; 點樣 'tím yǒng²*

— many?

M. 多少 to¹-shao³; 幾 chi³

S. 幾化 'kyi hau²

C. 幾多呢 'kéi to ni

— do you say?

M. 怎麼說 tsê(n)³-mo shuo¹

S. 那能話 na³ nung wo

C. 你點講呢 'néi 'tím
'kong ni

Human

M. 人類 jên² lei⁴

S. „ „ 个 nyung le³ kuh

C. „ „ yan lui²

— nature

M. 人性 jên² hsing⁴

S. „ „ nyung sing³

C. „ „ yan sing³

HundredM. 百 pai³, po²

S. „ pak

C. „ pák.

A — and fiftyM. 一百五十 i pai³ wu³
shih²S. „ „ „ „ ih pak ‘ng
zehC. „ „ „ „ yat, pák.
‘ng shap₂**A — and five**M. 一百零五 i pai³ ling²
wu³S. „ „ „ „ ih pak ling
‘ngC. „ „ „ „ yat, pák.
‘ng + ‘ng**Hungry**M. 餓了 ê⁴ loS. „ 哉 ngoo³ tseC. 肚餓 t‘ò ngo²**I am very —**M. 我餓得很 wo³ ê⁴ tê
hên³S. „ „ 極哉 ‘ngoo ngoo³
juh tseC. „ 好肚餓 ‘ngo hó t‘ò
ngo²**Hurry**M. 忙 mang²; 急忙 chi²
mang²

S. (1) maung; (2) kyih maung

C. 頻急 p‘an kap,

Don't hurryM. 別忙 pieh² mang²S. 勿要忙 ‘veh iau³ maung

C. 咪急 ‘mai kap,

You are in too much of a —M. 你太急了 ni³ t‘ai⁴
chi² loS. 儂忒急哉 nong³ t‘uh
kyih tseC. 你心急過頭 ‘néi
‘sam kap, kwó³ t‘au**— up**M. 快快 k‘uai⁴ k‘uai⁴S. „ 點 k‘wa³ ‘tienC. „ 的喇 fáí² ti lá**Husband**M. 丈夫 chang⁴-fu¹; 男人
nan²-jên²

S. (1) ‘dzang foo; (2) nen nyung

C. (1) chōng² ‘fú; (2) ‘nám
yan^{*}**— and wife**M. 夫妻 fu¹ ch‘i¹

S. „ „ foo ts‘i

C. „ „ ‘fú ts‘ai

HutM. 棚 p‘êng²

S. „ bang; 小屋 ‘siau ok

C. 寮 líú

I

- M.* 我 wo³
S. „ ‘ngoo
C. „ ‘ngo

Ice

- M.* 冰 ping¹
S. „ ping
C. „ 冰 ping; 雪 sūt.

The — is melting

- M.* 冰化了 ping¹ hua⁴ lo
S. „ 烱哉 ping yang tse
C. „ (or 雪) 鎔化 冰 ping
 (or sūt.) ɣung fá²

If

- M.* 若是 jo⁴ shih⁴; 若 jo⁴
S. „ „ zak ‘z; 如若 zu
 zak
C. (2) yök₂

But —

- M.* 倘若 t‘ang³ jo⁴
S. „ „ t‘aung zak
C. „ „ t‘ong yök₂

Ignorant

- M.* 無知 wu² chih¹
S. „ 識 m suh; 勿曉得
 ‘veh ‘hyau tuh
C. „ 知 ɣmò ɕhí; 有見
 識 ɣmò kin² shik,

III

- M.* 病了 ping⁴ lo; 有病
 yu³ ping⁴
S. 生病 sang bing²; (2) ‘yeu
 bing²
C. 病 peng²+

Dangerously —

- M.* 病的利害 ping⁴ ti li⁴-
 hai⁴
S. 重病 ‘dzong bing²
C. 病甚危 peng² sham²
 ɣngai

Are you — ?

- M.* 你有病麼 ni yu³ ping⁴
 mo
S. 儂 „ „ „ nong² ‘yeu
 bing mo
C. 你 „ „ 有呀 ɳéi ɳyau²
 peng²+ ɳmò a²

Important

- M.* 要緊 yao⁴-chin³
S. „ „ iau² ‘kyung
C. 緊要 ɳkan yíu²

Impossible

- M.* 做不得 tso⁴ pu tê
S. „ 勿來个 tsóo² ‘veh
 le kuh
C. 不能 pat, ɳang; (1) tsò²
 pat, tak,

Imprison

- M.* 押在監裏 *ya¹ tsai⁴*
 chien¹ li; 囚起來
 ch'iu² ch'i lai
- S.* 收監 *seu kan*; 監起
 來 *kan 'chi le*
- C.* 困入監 *k'wan² yap,*
 ǵám; 收監 *ǵshau² ǵám*

In

- M.* 在 *tsai⁴*; 裏 *li³*
- S.* „ *'dze*; „ *'li*
- C.* „ *tsoi²*

Come —

- M.* 進來 *chin⁴ lai*
- S.* „ „ *tsing² le*
- C.* 入嚟 *yap₂ ǵlai*

— the room

- M.* 在屋裏 *tsai⁴ wu¹ li*
- S.* „ „ „ *'dze ok 'li*
- C.* 在房裏 *tsoi² ǵfong* ǵlui*

Inch

- M.* 寸 *ts'un⁴*
- S.* „ *ts'ung²*
- C.* „ *ts'in²*

Include

- M.* 連 *lien²*; 包在內 *pao¹*
 tsai⁴ nei⁴
- S.* (1) *lien*; 包括 *pau kwah*
- C.* (1) *ǵlín*; (2) *ǵpáu tsoi² noi²*;
 包括 *ǵpáu k'üt.*

Including the children

- M.* 連孩子 *lien² hai²-tzǔ*
- S.* „ 小囡 *lien 'siau noen*
- C.* „ 埋啲細蚊仔
 ǵlín ǵmái ti sai² ǵman 'tsai

Increase

- M.* 加增 *chia¹ tsêng¹*; 添
 t'ien¹
- S.* 增加 *tsung ka*; (2) *t'ien*
- C.* (1) *ǵká ǵtsang*

The price increases daily

- M.* 價錢天天長 *chia⁴-*
 ch'ien t'ien¹ t'ien¹ chang³
- S.* 價錢一日大一日
 ka² dien ih nyih doo² ih nyih
- C.* 日日起價 *yat₂ yat₂*
 'héi ká²

Indistinct

- M.* 不清楚 *pu ch'ing¹ ch'u*
- S.* 勿 „ 爽 *'veh ts'ing 'saung*
- C.* 唔 „ 楚 *ǵm ǵts'ing 'ch'o*

Indoors

- M.* 在家裏 *tsai⁴ chia¹ li*;
 在裏頭 *tsai⁴ li³-t'ou*
- S.* (1) *'dze ka 'li*; (2) *'dze 'li deu*
- C.* (1) *tsoi² ǵká ǵlui*

Infectious

- M.* 傳染的 *ch'uan² jan³ ti*
- S.* „ „ 个 *dzen 'nyien kuh*
- C.* „ „ 嘅 *ǵch'ün 'yím ke²*

Inform

- M. 告訴 kao⁴ su⁴; 知會
chih¹ hui⁴
S. (1) kau³ soo³; (2) ts we
C. (1) kò³ sò³

Injure

- M. 害 hai⁴; 傷 shang¹; 損
傷 sun³ shang¹
S. (1) 'e³; (2) saung; (3) sung³
saung
C. (1) hoi²; (2) shōng; (3) 'sün
shōng

Ink

- M. 墨水 mo⁴ shui³; (Indian
——) 墨 mo⁴
S. (1) muh 's; (2) muh
C. (1) mak₂ 'shui; (2) mak₂

Inland

- M. 內地 nei⁴ ti⁴
S. „ „ ne³ di³
C. „ „ noi² téi²

Inn

- M. 店 tien⁴; 客店 k'o⁴-tien⁴
S. „ tien³; „ „ k'ak tien³
C. „ tím³; „ „ hák₀ tím³

Innocent

- M. 沒有罪 mei² yu³ tsui⁴
S. 無罪个 m 'dzoe kuh
C. „ „ ẽmò tsui²

Insane

- M. 瘋了 feng¹ lo
S. 癡 ts'
C. 癡 tín
An — person
M. 瘋子 fêng¹-tzũ
S. 癡 „ ts' 'ts
C. 癡人 tín yan

Inside

- M. 在裏頭 tsai⁴ li³-t'ou
S. 拉 „ 向 la 'li hyang³
C. 在 „ 頭 tsoi² 'lui t'au

Instead

- M. 代 tai⁴; 替 t'i⁴
S. „ 'de; „ t'i³
C. „ toi²; „ t'ai²; t'ai²-toi²

Insult (sb.)

- M. 罵話 ma⁴ hua⁴; 欺負
ch'i¹ fu¹
S. (1) mo³ wo³
C. (2) héi fú²
—— (vb).

- M. 罵 ma⁴; 凌辱 ling² ju⁴
S. „ mo³; 欺 chi zok
C. (2) ling yuk₂; 羞辱 saú
yuk₂

Insure

- M. 保 pao³
S. „ 'pau
C. „ 'pò; 保險 'pò 'hím

Insure against fire*M.* 保火險 pao³ huo³ hsien³*S.* „ „ „ 'pau 'hoo 'hyien*C.* „ „ „ 'pò 'fo 'hím**Intelligent***M.* 明白 ming² pai; 聰明 ts'ung¹ ming*S.* (1) ming bak; (2) ts'ong ming*C.* (2) ts'ung ɿming**Intend, Intention***M.* 有意思 yu³ i⁴ ssü; 定志 ting⁴ chih⁴*S.* (1) 'yeu i³ s'; 要 iau³; 想 'siang*C.* (1) 'yaú yí² sz²; 立意行 事 lap₂ yí² ɿhang sz²**Interfere***M.* 礙 ai⁴; 插嘴 ch'a⁴ tsui³*S.* „ nge³; „ „ ts'ah 'ts*C.* (2) ch'áp₀ 'tsui; 插手 ch'áp₀ 'shau**To — with custom***M.* 碍着風俗 ai⁴ cho*S.* „ „ „ „ fèng¹ su*S.* „ „ „ „ nge³ dzak*S.* „ „ „ „ fong dzok*C.* „ „ „ „ ngoi²*C.* „ „ „ „ chök₂ ɿfung tsuk₂**Interpret***M.* 繙譯 fan¹ i⁴*S.* „ „ fan yuh*C.* „ „ ɿán yik₂; (orally)傳話 ɿch'ün wá²***Interpreter***M.* 繙譯官 fan¹-i⁴ kuan¹;通事 t'ung¹ shih; 傳話的 ch'uan²-hua⁴ ti*S.* (1) fan yuh kwen; (2) t'ong-z'*C.* (1) ɿfan yik₂ ɿkwún; (2) ɿt'ung sz²; (3) ɿch'ün wá²***Interrupt***M.* 攔阻 lan² tsu³; 阻住 tsu³ chu⁴*S.* 隔斷 kak 'doen; 阻斷 'isoo 'doen*C.* (1) ɿlán 'cho; (2) 'cho chü²
—— (in speech)*M.* 插口 ch'a⁴ k'ou³*S.* „ „ ts'ah 'k'eu*C.* „ „ ch'áp₀ 'hau**Into***M.* 裏 li³; 在內 tsai⁴ nei⁴*S.* „ 'li*C.* 入 yap₂; 入內 yap₂ noi²**To go — the inn***M.* 進店裏去 chin⁴ tien⁴
li ch'ü⁴*S.* 到客店裏去 'tau
k'ak tien³ 'li chü²*C.* 入店 yap₂ tím³**Invade***M.* 侵佔 ch'in¹ chan⁴*S.* „ 犯 ts'ing 'van*C.* „ ɿts'am; 侵伐 ɿts'am
fat₂; 侵入 ɿts'am yap₂

Invent

- M.* 創造 ch'uang⁴ tsao⁴
S. „ „ tsuang 'zau
C. „ 作 ch'ong² tsok_o; 始
 創 'ch'í ch'ong²

To — a new method

- M.* 想出新法子來
 hsiang³ ch'ü¹ hsin¹ fa²-tzü
 lai
S. (1) 'siang ts'eh sing fah 'ts le
C. 想出新法子嚟
 'söng ch'ut, 'san fát, 'tsz
 lai

Invite

- M.* 請 ch'ing³
S. „ „ 'ts'ing
C. „ „ 'tseng†

Invoice

- M.* 貨單 huo⁴ tan¹
S. „ „ hoo² tan
C. 來貨單 loi fo² tán

Iron[†]

- M.* 鐵 t'ieh³
S. „ „ t'ih
C. „ „ t'ít_o

Island

- M.* 海島 hai³ tao³
S. „ „ 'he 'tau
C. „ „ 'hoi 't'ò

It

- M.* 他 t'a¹; for inanimate
 things use 這 ch'ê⁴ (this)
 or 那 na⁴ (that)
S. 伊 yi; 第个 di² kuh (this);
 伊个 i kuh (that)
C. 佢 'k'ui

Jam

- M.* 糖菓子 t'ang² kuo³-tzü
S. „ 醬 daung tsiang²
C. „ 菓 't'ong 'kwo

January

- M.* 正月 ch'êng⁴ yüeh⁴
S. „ „ tsung nyoeh
C. 英正月 ying 'ching yüt₂

Japan

- M.* 日本國 jih⁴ pên³ kuo²
S. „ „ „ zeh 'pung kok
C. „ „ „ yat₂ 'pún kwok_o

Japanese

- M.* 日本人 jih⁴ pên³ jên²
S. „ „ „ zeh 'pung hyung
C. „ „ „ yat₂ 'pún 'yan

Jetty

- M.* 馬頭 ma³-t'ou
S. 碼 „ 'mo deu
C. 馬 „ 'má 't'áu*

Jew

- M.* 猶太人 *yu*² t'ai⁴ jên²
S. „ „ „ *yeu* t'a³ nyung
C. „ „ „ *ɕyau* t'ai³ ɕyan

Join

- M.* 聯合 *lien*² ho²; 接 *chieh*¹;
 相連 *hsiang*¹ lien²
S. (1) *lien* keh; (2) *kyih*; 湊
ts'eu
C. (1) *ɕlün* hop₂; (2) *tsíp*₀; (3)
ɕsöng *ɕlün*
 — (fit together)

- M.* 對 *tui*⁴
S. „ *te*²; 湊 *ts'eu*
C. „ *tui*³; 并合 *ping*³ hop₂

Journey

- M.* 路程 *lu*⁴ ch'êng²; 道
*tao*⁴; (vb.) 走路 *tsou*³
*lu*⁴
S. (1) *loo*³ dzung; (2) *dau*²; (vb.)
 (3) *tseu* loo³
C. (1) *lò*² ɕh'ing; (vb.) *t'sau* lò²

Jug

- M.* 壺 *hu*²; 罐子 *kuan*⁴-tzu
S. „ 'oo; „ 頭 *kwen*³ deu
C. 耳瓶 *ɕyí* ɕp'eng*

July

- M.* 七月 *ch'i*¹ yüeh⁴
S. „ „ *ts'ih* nyoeh
C. 英七月 *ying* ts'at, yüt₂

June

- M.* 六月 *liu*⁴ yüeh⁴
S. „ „ *lok* nyoeh
C. 英六月 *ying* luk₂ yüt₂

Justice

- M.* 公道 *kung*¹ tao⁴; 理 *li*³
S. „ „ *kong* dau²; „ 'li
C. „ „ *kung* tò²

Keep

- M.* 留 *liu*²; 存 *ts'un*²; 守
*shou*³
S. (1) *lieu*; (2) *dzung*; (3) *'seu*
C. (1) *ɕlau*; (2) *ɕts'ün*; (3) *'shau*

To — guard

- M.* 看守 *k'an*⁴ shou³
S. „ „ *k'o'en* 'seu
C. „ „ *ɕhon* 'shau

Kettle

- M.* 水壺 *shui*³ hu²
S. „ „ *'s* 'oo; 吊子 *tiau*³
ts
C. 煲 *pò*

Key

- M.* 鑰匙 *yao*⁴ ch'ih (pron.
*yao*⁴ shih)
S. „ „ *yak* dz
C. 鎖 „ *'so* ɕshí

Kick

- M.* 踢 *t'i*¹
S. „ *t'ih*
C. „ *t'ek*₀⁺

Kill

- M.* 殺 sha¹
S. „ sah
C. 打死 tá 'sz; 殺 shát.

Kind (adj.)

- M.* 好 hao³; 溫和 wên¹-ho²
S. „ 心 'hau sing
C. „ „ 'ho sam; 有心
 'yaú sam
 — (sb.)

- M.* 類樣 lei⁴ yang⁴
S. 種類 'tsong le²; 樣 yang²
C. 樣 yöng²; 類 lui²

Every —

- M.* 樣樣 yang⁴ yang⁴; 各樣
 ko⁴ yang⁴
S. (2) kauh yang²
C. (1) yöng² yöng²; (2) kok.
 yöng²

The same —

- M.* 一樣的 i¹ yang⁴ ti
S. „ „ 个 ih yang² kuh
C. „ „ yat, yöng²

King

- M.* 君主 chün¹ chu³; 王
 wang²
S. (1) kyuin 'tsu; (2) waung
C. (1) kwan 'chü; (2) 'kwong

The King of England

- M.* 大英君主 ta⁴ ying¹
 chün¹ chu³
S. 英國皇帝 iung kok
 waung ti²
C. 大英國大君主
 tai² ying kwok, tai² kwan
 'chü

Kingdom

- M.* 國 kuo²
S. „ kok
C. „ kwok.

Kitchen

- M.* 廚房 ch'u² fang²
S. „ „ dzu vaung; 竈 tsau²
C. „ „ 'ch'ü 'fong*

Knee

- M.* 波稜蓋兒 po¹ lêng²
 kai⁴ 'rh
S. 膝餛頭 sih men deu
C. „ 頭 sat, 't'au*

Knife

- M.* 刀子 tao¹-tzü
S. „ „ tau 'ts
C. „ „ 'tò; 刀仔 'tò 'tsai

The handle of a —

- M.* 刀子把 tao¹-tzü pa⁴
S. „ 柄 tau ping²
C. „ „ 'tò peng²†

Knife, the edge of a

M. 刀刃 tao¹ jên⁴

S. „ 口 tau¹ k'eu

C. „ „ tō¹ 'haú

Knock

M. 打 ta³

S. „ 'tang

C. „ 'tá; 拍 p'ák.

To — at a door

M. 敲門 ch'iao¹ mên²

S. „ „ k'au mung

C. 扣 „ k'au² mún

Knot

M. 綑兒 k'u(n)³ 'rh; 疙瘩
ko¹-ta

S. 結子 kyih¹ ts

C. 綑 līt⁰; 結頭 kít⁰ t'au

Know

M. 知道 chih¹ tao

S. 曉得 'hyau tuh; 懂 'tong

C. 知到 chí¹ tō¹

How do you — ?

M. 你怎麼知道 ni
tsê(n)³-mo chih¹-tao⁴

S. 儂那能曉得 nong²
na² nung 'hyau tuh

C. 你點知 'néi 'tím chí

To — Chinese

M. 會中國話 hui⁴ chung¹
kuo² hua⁴

S. 會中國話 we² tsong
kok wo²

C. 識唐話 shik¹ t'ong wá²*

Do you — him?

M. 你認識他麼 ni jên⁴
shih⁴ t'a¹ mo

S. 儂阿認得伊 nong²
a nyung² tuh yi

C. 你識佢唔識呢 'néi
shik¹ k'ui m shik¹ ni

Label

M. 帖子 t'ieh¹-tzū; 牌子
p'ai²-tzu

S. „ 頭 t'ih deu; 簽條
ts'ien diau

C. 號 „ 紙 ho² t'au 'chí;
號標 ho² p'ú; 帖 t'íp.

Labour

M. 工 kung¹; 手工 shou³
kung¹

S. 工夫 kong foo; 生活
sang weh

C. (1) kung; (2) 'shaú kung

Lack

M. 沒有 mei² yu³; 缺
ch'ieh²; 少 shao³; 短
tuan³

S. (2) ch'oe; (3) 'sau; 缺
少 ch'oe 'sau

C. (3) 'shíú; 欠 hím²; 不足
pat, tsuk,

There is a lack of everything

M. 什麼都沒有 shê(n)²-
mo tou¹ mei³ yu³

S. 樣樣勿殼 yang yang
'veh keu³

C. 樣樣不足 yǒng² yǒng²
pat, tsuk,

Lamp, to light a

M. 點燈 tien³ têng¹

S. „ „ 'tien tung

C. „ „ 'tím tang

Land (sb.)

M. 地 ti⁴

S. „ di²

C. „ téi²

By —

M. 旱路 han⁴ lu⁴

S. „ „ 'oen loo³

C. 打路 tá lò²; 由陸路
去 yau² luk, lò² hui²

Language

M. 話 hua⁴

S. „ wo³

C. 說話 shüt, wá²

Large

M. 大 ta⁴

S. „ doo³, da³

C. „ tái²

Last (adj.)

M. 末 mo⁴; 末尾的 mo⁴
wei³ ti

S. (1) meh; 末末了 meh
meh liau

C. 收尾 shau, méi (or 'méi)

— night

M. 昨晚 tso² wan³

S. „ 夜 dzok ya³

C. „ 晚 tsok, 'mán

Lake

M. 湖 hu²

S. „ woo

C. „ wú

Lamb

M. 羊羔 yang² kao¹

S. „ „ yang kau

C. „ „ yǒng kò; 綿羊
仔 mín yǒng 'tsai

Lame

M. 癱 ch'üeh¹

S. 折脚 zeh kyak

C. 跛 „ pai kök

A — person

M. 癱子 ch'üeh¹-tzü

S. 折脚个 zeh kyak kuh

C. 跛 „ 人 pai kök, yan

Lamp

M. 燈 têng¹

S. „ tung

C. „ tang

Last month

M. 上月 shang⁴ yüeh⁴

S. „ „ 'zaung nyoeh

C. 先個月 sín ko² yüt₂

— year

M. 去年 ch'ü⁴ nien²S. 舊 „ jeu³ nyienC. 去 „ hui³ 年; 舊年
kau² 年

— time

M. 上次 shang⁴ tz'ü⁴

S. „ 回 'zaung we

C. 先個賬 sín ko² chöng³

The month before —

M. 前月 ch'ien² yüeh⁴

S. „ „ zien nyoeh

C. „ 個月 ts'ín ko² yüt₂

Late

M. 晚 wan³; 遲 ch'ih²S. 晏 an²; „ dzC. (2) ch'í; 慢 mán²

He came too —

M. 他來的太晚了 t'a¹
lai² ti t'ai⁴ wan³ loS. 伊來子忒晏 yi le
'ts t'uh an³C. 佢嚟得遲 k'ui lai tak,
ch'í

It is late

M. 天晚了 t'ien¹ wan³ loS. 晏拉哉 an² la² tseC. 夜咯 ye² lok₀

Laugh

M. 笑 hsiao⁴S. „ siao³C. „ síu³

Laundry

M. 洗衣房 hsi³ i¹ fang²

S. „ „ 作 'si i tsauh

C. „ „ 店 'sai yí tím²

Law

M. 律例 lü⁴ li; 律法 lü⁴
fa; 王法 wang² fa

S. (1) lih lí; 法律 fah lih;

國法 kok fah

C. (1) lut₂ lai²; (2) lut₂ fát₀

To infringe the —

M. 犯法 fan⁴ fa³

S. „ „ 'van fah

C. „ „ fán² fát₀

To go to —

M. 打官司 ta³ kuan¹ ssü

S. „ „ „ 'tang kwen s

C. „ „ „ 'tá kwún sz

Military —

M. 軍法 chün¹ fa³

S. „ „ kyuin fah

C. „ „ kwan fát₀

Lay

- M.* 放 fang¹; 擱 ko¹
S. „ faung²; „ kauh
C. „ fong³

To — down

- M.* 放下 fang¹ hsia⁴
S. „ „ faung³ ‘au
C. „ „ fong³ há²

Lazy

- M.* 懶惰 lan³ to
S. „ „ ‘lan doo³
C. „ „ ‘lán to²

Lead (metal)

- M.* 鉛 ch‘ien¹
S. „ k‘an
C. „ gŷn

— pencil

- M.* 鉛筆 ch‘ien¹ pi³
S. „ „ k‘an pih
C. „ „ gŷn pat,

Lead (vb.)

- M.* 領 ling³
S. „ ‘ling
C. 帶 tái³

To — a horse

- M.* 拉馬 la¹ ma³
S. „ „ ‘la ‘mo
C. „ „ lái ‘má; 引馬
 ‘yan ‘má

To lead troops

- M.* 帶兵 tai⁴ ping¹
S. „ „ ta² ping
C. „ „ tái³ ping

Lean**To — against (or upon)**

- M.* 靠 k‘ao⁴
S. „ k‘au³
C. 挨 ái

— (adj.)

- M.* 瘦 shou⁴
S. „ seu³
C. „ shaú³

Learn

- M.* 學 hstieh²
S. „ ‘auh
C. „ hok₂

— (hear)

- M.* 聽見說 t‘ing¹-chien
 shuo¹
S. „ „ „ t‘ing kyien³
 seh
C. „ „ t‘eng⁺ kín³

Leather

- M.* 皮子 p‘i²-tzŭ; 皮 p‘i²
S. (2) bi
C. (2) p‘éi

Leave (vb.)

- M.* 離 li²; 離開 li² k‘ai
S. „ li; „ „ li k‘e
C. „ léi; „ „ léi hoi

To leave behind*M.* 留下 liu² hsia*S.* „ „ lieu 'au*C.* „ „ lau² há²**To — home***M.* 離家 li² chia¹*S.* „ „ li kya*C.* „ „ léi² cá

— (sb.)

M. 假 chia⁴*S.* „ „ kya²*C.* „ „ ká²**To ask for —***M.* 告假 kao⁴ chia⁴*S.* „ „ kau² kya²*C.* „ „ kò² ká²**To grant —***M.* 准假 chun³ chia⁴*S.* „ „ tsung kya²*C.* „ „ 'chun ká²**— expired***M.* 假滿 chia⁴ man³*S.* „ „ kya² 'men*C.* „ „ ká² 'mún**Left (adj.)***M.* 左 tso³*S.* „ „ tsi²*C.* „ „ 'tso**Leg***M.* 腿 t'ui³*S.* „ „ 't'e*C.* 脚 kòk_o; 小腿 'sú t'ui**To break one's leg***M.* 折腿 chē² (shē²) t'ui³*S.* „ „ zeh 't'e*C.* „ 斷脚 chít_o t'ün kòk_o**Lemon***M.* 香桃 hsiang¹ t'ao²*S.* 檸檬 ning mung*C.* „ „ 'ning mung**Lend***M.* 借 chieh⁴; 借給 chieh⁴ kei³*S.* „ „ tsia²*C.* „ „ tse²**Length***M.* 長短 ch'ang² tuan³*S.* „ „ dzang 'toen*C.* „ „ ch'öng**What is the — ?***M.* 長多少 ch'ang² to¹-shao³*S.* 幾化長 'kyi hau² dzang*C.* 有幾 „ 呢 'yau 'kéi
ch'öng 'ni**Less***M.* 少 shao³*S.* „ „ sau*C.* „ „ 'shíu**— than that***M.* 比那個少 pi³ na⁴-ko
shao³*S.* „ 伊个 „ 'pi i kuh sau*C.* 少過嗰个 'shíu kwo²
'ko ko²

Letter

M. 信 hsin⁴

S. „sing³

C. „ sun³

A _____

M. 一封信 i fêng¹ hsin⁴

S. „ „ „ ih fong sing'

C. " " " yat, fung sun'

— him do it

To send a —

M. 送信 sung⁴ hsin⁴

S. 寄 „ kyi' sing'

C. „ „ kéi' sun'

— him go

M. 放他 fang⁴ t'a¹

S. 伊夫 faung yi chi'

C. 佢喇 fong' ɣk'ui lá ;

由得佢去 *yaú tak,*
ʔk'ui hui'

~~_____~~ me see

M. 給我看 kei³.wo³ k'an⁴

S. 讓 „ „ 看 nyang' 'ngoo
k'oen' k'oen'

C. 俾 , 睇 'péi ɿngo t'ai

— me pass

M. 讓我過去 jang⁴ wo³
kuo⁴ ch'ü⁴

S. „ „ „ „ nyang'ngoo
koo' chi'

C. „ „ „ „ yöng² ʎngo
kwo³ hui³

Level

M. 平 p'ing²

S. „bing

C. „p'ing

Lichee

M. 荔枝 li⁴ chih¹

S. „ „ 'li ts

C. „ „ lai² chf

Lie (sb.)

M. 假話 chia³ hua⁴; 謊話
huang³ hua⁴

S. (1) 'ka wo'; (2) 'hwaung wo'

C. 大話 *tái² wá²*; 謊言
ʔong yín

To tell a —

M. 撒謊 sa¹ huang³

S. 說 „ soeh 'hwaung

C. 講大話 'kong tái² wá²

Lie (vb.)*M.* 躺 t'ang³; 臥 wo⁴*S.* 睏 k'wung²*C.* 瞓 fan²; (2) ngo²**To — down***M.* 躺下 t'ang³ hsia⁴*S.* 睏下去 k'wung 'au chi²*C.* 瞓落 fan² lok₂; 眠下
mín há²**Lieutenant***M.* 千總 ch'ien¹ tsung³; 陸軍中尉 lu⁴ chün¹
chung¹ wei⁴*S.* (1) ts'ien 'tsong; (2) lok
kyuin tsong wei*C.* 守備 'shaú péi²; (2) luk₂
kwan chung wai²**Second —***M.* 陸軍少尉 lu⁴ chün¹
shao³ wei⁴*S.* " " " " lok kyuin
'sau wei*C.* " " " " luk₂ kwan
shíú² wai²**Life***M.* 性命 hsing⁴ ming⁴; 命
ming⁴*S.* " " sing² ming²*C.* " " sing² ming²; 生
命 sháng ming²**To risk one's life***M.* 拚命 p'in¹ ming⁴*S.* " " p'ing ming²*C.* " " pín² meng²†**Lift***M.* 拏起來 na² ch'i lai*S.* " " " nau 'chi le; 抬
de; 舉 'kyui*C.* 抽起 ch'áu 'héi; 執起
chap, 'héi**To — a stone***M.* 拏起石頭來 na² ch'i
shih²-t'ou lai*S.* 舉起石頭來 'kyui
'chi zak deu le*C.* 抽起石頭嚟 ch'áu
'héi shek₂† t'au lai**Light (adj.)***M.* (weight) 輕 ch'ing¹; (colour)
淡 tan⁴*S.* (1) chung; (2) 'dan*C.* (1) heng; (2) tám²**Like***M.* 如同 ju² t'ung²; 一樣
i¹ yang⁴*S.* 像 'ziang; (1) zu dong; (2)
ih yang*C.* 似 't'sz**Very —***M.* 好像 hao³ hsiang⁴*S.* " " 'hau 'ziang*C.* " 似 'hò 'ts'z

Do you like it?

M. 愛不愛 ai⁴ pu ai⁴

S. 儂好歡喜第个
nong³ 'hau hwen 'hyidi³ kuh

C. 你中意唔中意呢
'néi chung yi² ɿm chung
yi² ɿni

Limb

M. 肢 chih¹

S. „ ts

C. „ ɿchí

Limit

M. 限 hsien⁴; 界 chieh⁴

S. „ 'an³; „ 限 ka³ 'an³

C. „ hán²; (2) kái²; kái²-hán²

Line

M. 線 hsien⁴

S. „ sien³

C. „ sín³; 行 ɿhong

To draw a —

M. 畫一道 hua⁴ i tao⁴

S. „ 根線 wo³ kung sien³

C. „ 一條線 wák² yat,
ɿ'tú sín³

Lip

M. 嘴唇 tsui³ ch'un²

S. „ „ 'ts zung

C. 口唇 'haú ɿshun

List

M. 清單 ch'ing¹ tan¹; 單
子 tan¹-tzu

S. (1) ts'ing tan; (2) tan 'ts

C. 目錄 muk² luk²; 條目
ɿ'tú muk²

— of names

M. 名單 ming² tan¹

S. „ „ ming tan

C. „ „ ɿming ɿtán

Listen

M. 聽 t'ing¹

S. „ t'ing

C. „ ɿ'teng⁺

Little

M. (size) 小 hsiao³; (quantity)
少 shao³

S. (1) 'siau; (2) 'sau

C. (size) 細 sai³; 小 'siú;
(quantity) 少 shiú³

A —

M. 一點兒 i tie(n)³ 'rh

S. „ „ 點 ih 'tien 'tien

C. „ 啲 yat, ɿti

A — better

M. 好些兒 hao³ hsie(h)¹ 'rh

S. „ „ 一點 'hau ih 'tien

C. „ 啲 'hò ɿti

Wait a little

M. 等 一 會 兒 têng³ i
hu(i)⁴ 'rh

S. „ „ 歇 'tung ih hyih

C. „ „ 吓 'tang yat, 'há

Live

M. 活 huó²; 生 shēng¹; 住
chū⁴

S. (1) weh; (3) dzu³

C. (1) wút₂; (2) sháng; (3) chū²

Where do you — ?

M. 住 在 那 裏 chu⁴ tsai⁴
na³-li

S. 儂 住 拉 那 裏 nong
dzu³ la² 'a li

C. 你 „ 邊 處 呢 'néi
chū² pín shū² 'ni

He won't —

M. 他 活 不 了 t'a¹ huó²
pu liaó³

S. 活 勿 長 weh 'veh dzang

C. 佢 必 死 'k'ui pít₀ 'sz

Lively

M. 快 活 k'uai⁴ huó

S. 活 潑 weh p'eh

C. „ „ wút₂ p'út₀

Load (vb.)

M. 裝 chuāng¹; 載 tsai⁴

S. „ tsaung; „ tse³

C. „ chong; „ tsoi³

To load a cart

M. 裝 車 chuāng¹ ch'ê¹

S. „ „ tsaung ts'o

C. „ „ chong 'ch'e

To — a ship

M. 載 船 tsai⁴ ch'uan²

S. „ „ tse³ zen

C. 裝 貨 落 船 'chong fo²
lok₂ 'shūn

To — a gun

M. 裝 鎗 chuāng¹ ch'iang¹

S. „ „ tsaung ts'iang

C. 入 藥 落 鎗 yap₂ yok₂
lok₂ 'ts'ōng

— (sb.)

M. (animal) 馱 子 to⁴-tzū;
(man) 挑 子 t'iao¹-tzū

S. 擔 子 tan³ 'ts

C. „ („) tám³ ('tsz)

Local

M. 本 地 pên³ ti⁴

S. „ „ 'pung di³

C. „ „ 'pún téi²

— officials

M. 地 方 官 ti⁴-fang kuan¹

S. „ „ „ di³ faung kwen

C. „ „ „ téi² fong 'kwún

Lock (sb.)

— (of a door)

M. 鎖 so³

S. „ 'soo

C. „ 'so

Lock (of a canal)*M.* 閘 *cha*²*S.* „ *zah**C.* „ *tsáp₂*(vb.) — **the door***M.* 鎖上門 *so*³ *shang*⁴ *mên*²*S.* „ 門 *'soo mung**C.* „ „ *'so mún***Locomotive***M.* 火車頭 *huo*³ *ch'ê*¹ *t'ou*²*S.* „ „ „ *'hoo ts'o deu**C.* „ „ „ *'fo ɕh'e ɕt'áu***Log***M.* 一根 (or 塊) 木 *i kên*¹
(or *k'uai*⁴) *mu*⁴*S.* 一根 (or 塊) 木頭 *ih*
kung (or *kw'e*³) *mok deu**C.* 木頭 *muk₂ ɕt'áu***Long***M.* 長 *ch'ang*²*S.* „ *dzang**C.* „ *ɕh'öng***Twenty feet —***M.* 兩丈長 *liang*³ *chang*⁴
*ch'ang*²*S.* „ „ „ *liang dzang*
*dzang**C.* „ „ „ *lǒng chǒng*²
*ɕh'öng***It is a very long way***M.* 道兒狠遠 *tao*⁴ 'rh
*hên*³ *yüan*³*S.* 極長个路 *juh dzang*
*kuh loo*²*C.* 好遠路 *'hò ɕyün lǝ*²**A — time***M.* 工夫大 *kung*¹ *fu*¹ *ta*⁴*S.* 一大歇 *ih doo*² *hyih**C.* 好耐 *'ho noi*²**Look***M.* 看 *k'an*⁴; 瞧 *ch'iao*²*S.* „ *k'oen*²*C.* 睇 *'t'ai***— for***M.* 找 *chao*³; 尋 *hsün*²*S.* (2) *zing**C.* 搵 *'wan*; (2) *ɕts'am***— after***M.* 管 *kuan*³; 照管 *chao*⁴
*kuan*³*S.* „ *'kwen*; „ „ *tsau*²
*'kwen**C.* 顧住 *kwú*² *chü*²; 打理
*'tá ɕléi***Loose***M.* 鬆 *sung*¹; 解開 *chieh*³
*k'ai*¹*S.* „ *song*; „ „ *'ka k'e**C.* „ *ɕung*; „ 角 *'kái lat*

Loot (vb.)*M.* 搶奪 ch'iang³ to²*S.* „ „ 'ts'iang tuh*C.* „ „ 'ts'öng tüt₂

— (sb.)

M. 搶的東西 ch'iang³ ti
tung¹-hsi*S.* „ 着个物事 'ts'iang
dzak kuh meh z²*C.* „ 奪之物 'ts'öng tüt₂
chí mat₂**Lose***M.* 丟 tiu¹; 失 shih¹*S.* 失脫 seh t'eh*C.* (2) shat; 唔見 ɿm kín²**To — hope***M.* 失望 shih¹ wang⁴*S.* „ „ seh maung²*C.* „ „ shat, mong²**To — 'face'***M.* 丟臉 tiu¹ lien³*S.* 無面孔 m mien² 'k'ong*C.* 丟臉 t'íu lím²; 失臉
shat, lím²**To — time***M.* 耽誤工夫 tan¹ wu⁴
kung¹ fu¹*S.* „ 攔 „ „ tan kauh
kong foo*C.* 失時 shat, ɿshí**To lose one's way***M.* 走錯了 tsou³ ts'o⁴ lo*S.* 迷路 mi loo²*C.* 失 „ shat, lò²**Loss****To suffer —***M.* 吃虧 ch'ih¹ k'uei¹*S.* „ „ chuh kw'e*C.* 受 „ shau² k'wai**Louse***M.* 虱子 shih¹-tzü*S.* „ seh*C.* „ shat; 虱 𧈧 shat, 'ná**Low***M.* 低 ti¹; 矮 ai³; 下 hsia⁴*S.* „ ti; „ 'a; „ 'au*C.* „ tai; „ 'ai; „ há²**The wall is —***M.* 牆矮 ch'iang² ai³*S.* „ 頭低 ziang deu ti*C.* „ 矮 ɿts'öng 'ai**— ground***M.* 窪地 wa¹ ti⁴*S.* 低 „ ti di²*C.* „ „ tai téi²**— class***M.* 下等 hsia⁴ têng³*S.* „ „ 'au tung*C.* „ „ há² tang

Machine

- M.* 機器 *chi*¹ *chí*⁴
S. „ „ *kyi chí*²
C. „ „ *ǵkái héi*²

Mad

- M.* 瘋了 *fēng*¹ *lo*
S. 發癡 *fah ts'*
C. 癲 *ǵtín*; 狂 *ǵk'wong*

A — dog

- M.* 瘋狗 *fēng*¹ *kou*³
S. 邪 „ *zia* *'keu*
C. 癲 „ *ǵtín* *'kau*

Made**— of wood**

- M.* 木頭做的 *mu*⁴-*t'ou*
*tso*⁴ *ti*
S. „ „ „ 个 *mok deu*
*tsoo*³ *kuh*
C. „ 做嘅 *muk*₂ *tsò*² *ké*²

Magazine**Powder —**

- M.* 火藥局 *huo*³-*yao*⁴ *chü*²
S. „ „ „ *'hoo yak jok*
C. „ „ „ *'fo yök*₂ *kuk*₂

Magistrate**District —**

- M.* 知縣 *chih*¹ *hsien*⁴; 知
 事 *chih*¹ *shih*⁴
S. „ „ *ts yoen*²; (2) *ts z'*
C. „ „ *ǵchí yün*^{2*}; (2) *ǵchi*
*sz*²

Major

- M.* 協參領 *hsieh*² *ts'an*¹
ling; 陸軍少校 *lu*⁴
*chün*¹ *shao*³ *hsiao*⁴
S. (1) *hie ts'en* *'ling*; (2) *lok*
kyuin *'sau chiau*
C. 督隊官 *tuk*, *tui*² *ǵkwún*;
 (2) *luk*₂ *ǵkwan* *'shiu káu*²

Make

- M.* 做 *tso*⁴
S. „ *tsoo*³
C. „ *tsò*²; 整 *'ching*

To — a bed

- M.* 鋪床 *p'u*⁴ *ch'uang*²
S. „ „ *p'oo zaung*
C. „ „ *ǵp'ò* *ǵch'ong*

Cannot —

- M.* 做不了 *tso*⁴ *pu liao*³
S. 勿能做 *'veh nung tsoo*³
C. 唔整得 *ǵm* *'ching tak*₂;
 唔做得 *ǵm* *tsò*² *tak*₂

Man

- M.* 人 *jên*²
S. „ *nyung*
C. „ *ǵyan*

A young —

- M.* 年輕的人 *nien*² *ch'ing*¹
*ti jên*²
S. 少年人 *sau*² *nyien nyung*
C. „ „ „ *shíu*² *ǵnín ǵyan*

Manage

- M.* 管 kuan³; 辦理 pan⁴ li³
S. „ „ kwen; „ „ ban³ 'li
C. „ „ 'kwún; „ „ pán² 'léi

To — an affair

- M.* 辦事 pan⁴ shih⁴
S. „ „ ban² z'²
C. „ „ pán² sz²

Unable to —

- M.* 辦不了 pan⁴ pu liao³
S. 勿會辦 'veh we ban³
C. 唔辦得 ɿm pán² tak,

Mandarin

- M.* 官 kuan¹
S. „ kwen
C. „ ɿkwún

— dialect

- M.* 官話 kuan¹ hua⁴
S. „ „ kwen wo³
C. „ „ ɿkwún wá²*

Many

- M.* 多 to¹
S. „ „ too
C. „ „ ɿto (or ɿto)

— people

- M.* 人多 jên² to¹
S. „ „ nyung too; 許多
 人 'hyui too nyung
C. 人多 ɿyan ɿto

Many times

- M.* 好些次 hao³ hsieh¹ tz'ü⁴
S. „ „ 幾回 'hau 'kyi we
C. 多次 ɿto ts'z'

How — ?

- M.* 多少 to¹-shao³
S. 幾化 'kyi hau³
C. 有幾多 ɿyau 'kéi ɿto
 — thanks!

- M.* 多謝 to¹ hsieh⁴
S. „ „ too zia
C. „ „ ɿto tse²

Map

- M.* 地理 圖 ti⁴ li³ t'u³
S. „ „ „ di³ 'li doo
C. „ „ „ téi² 'léi ɿt'ò*

March (month)

- M.* 三月 san¹ yüeh⁴
S. „ „ san nyoeh
C. 英三月 ɿying ɿsám yüt₂

March (troops)

- M.* 走 tsou³
S. „ „ 'tseu
C. 行軍 ɿhang ɿkwan; 進軍
 tsun' ɿkwan

The troops have marched

- M.* 兵走了 ping¹ tsou³ lo
S. „ „ „ ping 'tseu liau
C. 已經行軍咯 ɿyí ɿking
 ɿhang ɿkwan lok.

MareM. 騾馬 k'ó⁴ ma³

S. 雌 ,, ts' 'mo

C. 馬 𩵿 'má 'ná

Mark (sb.)M. 號 hao⁴; 記號 chi⁴-hao⁴S. ,, 'au'; ,, ,, kyí² 'au'C. ,, hò²; ,, ,, k'í² hò²

— (vb.)

M. 打印 ta³ yin⁴; 畫 hua⁴S. 做記號 tsoo³ kyí² 'au';
(2) wo²

C. (1) 'tá yan'

To hit the —M. 打中了 ta³ chung⁴ lo

S. ,, ,, 'tang tsong'

C. ,, ,, 'tá chung'

MarketM. 市 shih⁴

S. ,, 'z; 市面 'z mien'

C. ,, 'shí; 欄 lán; 街市
'kái 'shí; 市頭 'shí t'áu**— price**M. 市價 shih⁴ chia⁴; 行價
hang² chia⁴

S. (1) 'z ka'

C. (2) 'shí ká'

To go to —M. 趕集去 kan³ chi⁴ ch'ü⁴

S. 上街 ,, 'zaung ka chi'

C. 去 ,, 市 hui² 'kái 'shí**Market town**M. 鎮店 chên⁴ tien⁴

S. 市鎮 'z tsung'

C. ,, ,, 'shi chan'

MarshM. 水地 shui³ ti⁴

S. 濕 ,, sak di'

C. ,, ,, 'shui téi'; 澤 chák²**Mast**M. 桅杆 wei² kan¹S. ,, ,, we ken; 檣子
ziang² 'ts

C. ,, ,, 'wai kon

MasterM. 主人 chu³ jên²

S. ,, ,, 'tsu nyung

C. ,, ,, 'chü 'yan; 事頭
sz² t'áu***— of a ship**M. 船主 ch'uan² chu³S. ,, ,, zen 'tsu; 老大
'lau da'

C. ,, ,, 'shün 'chü

— (of a household)M. 東家 tung¹-chia

S. ,, ,, tong ka

C. ,, ,, tung ká

— (teacher)M. 先生 hsiên¹-shêng; 老
師 lao³ shih¹

S. (1) sien sang

C. (1) sín sháng; (2) 'lò sz

Mat

- M.* 蓆 hsi²
S. „ zih
C. „ tsek₂†

Matches

- M.* 取燈兒 ch'ü³ têng¹ 'rh;
 自來火 tzü⁴ lai² huó³
S. (2) z' le 'hoo; 洋火 yang
 'hoo
C. 火柴 fo² shái (or² ch'ái)

Mattress

- M.* 褥子 ju⁴-tzü
S. „ „ nyok 'ts
C. 牀褥 ch'ong yuk₂*

Me

- M.* 我 wo³
S. „ 'ngoo
C. „ 'ngo

Mean (vb.)

- M.* 有意思 yu³ i⁴ ssü
S. „ „ „ 'yeu i' s'; 想
 'siang
C. „ „ „ 'yaú yf' sz'

What does it — ?

- M.* 有什麼意思 yu³
 shé(n)²-mo i⁴-ssü
S. 啥意思 sa² i' s'
C. 係乜意思呢 hai²
 mat, yi² sz' 'ni

Measure (vb.)

- M.* 量 liang²
S. „ liang
C. „ löng²; 度 tok₂

To — the length of a wall

- M.* 量量牆有多長
 liang² liang² ch'iang² yu³
 to¹ ch'ang²
S. 量量牆頭幾化長
 liang liang ziang deü 'kyi
 hau' dzang
C. 量個幅牆有幾長
 löng² ko' fuk, ts'öng 'yaú
 'kéi ch'öng

Meat

- M.* 肉 jou⁴
S. „ nyok
C. „ yuk₂

Medicine

- M.* 藥 yao⁴
S. „ yak
C. „ yök₂

A dose of —

- M.* 一劑藥 i chi⁴ yao⁴
S. „ „ „ ih tsi yak
C. „ „ „ yat, tsai yök₂

To take —

- M.* 喫藥 ch'ih¹ yao⁴
S. „ „ chuh yak
C. 食 „ shik₂ yök₂

Meet

- M. 遇見 yü⁴ chien⁴; 碰見
p'êng⁴ chien⁴; 迎 ying²
S. 碰着 bang² dzak; 迎接
nyung tsih
C. 遇 „ yü² chök.

Melon

- M. 甜瓜 t'ien² kua¹
S. „ „ dien kwo
C. 瓜 kwá

Water —

- M. 西瓜 hsi¹ kua¹
S. „ „ si kwo
C. „ „ sai kwá

Mend

- M. 修理 hsiu¹ li³; 收拾
shou¹ shih
S. 補 'poo; (1) sieu 'li
C. „ 翻 'pò fán; 修整
sáu 'ching

Merchant

- M. 買賣人 mai³-mai⁴ jên²
S. 商 saung; 商家 saung ka
C. „ 人 chōng yān

Messenger

- M. 送信的 sung⁴ hsin⁴ ti
S. „ „ 个 song' sing' kuh
C. 帶信人 tái' sun' yān

Metal

- M. 五金類 wu³ chin¹ lei⁴
S. „ „ „ 'ng kyung le'
C. „ „ „ 'ng kam lui²

Middle

- M. 中 chung¹
S. „ „ tsong
C. „ „ chung

In the —

- M. 中間 chung¹ chien¹
S. „ „ tsong kan
C. 在中間 tsoi² chung kán

Mile (Chinese = about $\frac{1}{2}$ English mile)

- M. 里 li³
S. „ 'li
C. „ 'léi

Military

- M. 武 wu³
S. „ 'voo
C. „ 'mò

— affairs

- M. 軍務 chün¹ wu⁴
S. „ „ kyuin voo'
C. „ „ kwan mò²

— officers

- M. 武官 wu³ kuan¹
S. „ „ 'voo kwen
C. „ „ 'mò kwún

Military orders*M.* 軍令 chün¹ ling⁴*S.* „ „ kyuin ling³*C.* „ „ ɕkwan ling²

— tactics

M. 兵法 ping¹ fa³*S.* „ „ ping fah*C.* „ „ ɕping fát_o**Milk***M.* 奶 nai³*S.* „ „ ˈna*C.* „ „ ˈnái**Cow's** —*M.* 牛奶 niu² nai³*S.* „ „ nyeu ˈna*C.* „ „ ɕngáu ˈnái**Mill***M.* 磨 mo⁴*S.* „ 子 moo³ ˈts; 磨坊
moo³ faung*C.* „ „ mo²**A wind** —*M.* 風磨 fêng¹ mo⁴*S.* „ „ fong moo³*C.* „ „ ɕfung mo²**Mine (pron.)***M.* 我的 wo³ ti*S.* „ „ ˈngo kuh*C.* „ „ ˈngo ke³**(sb.) a coal mine***M.* 煤窖 mei² yao²*S.* „ „ 礦 me kwˈaung³*C.* „ „ ɕmui kˈwong³**A silver** —*M.* 銀礦 yin² kung³*S.* „ „ nyung kwˈaung³*C.* „ „ ɕngan kˈwong³

— (mil.)

M. 地(水)雷 ti⁴ (shui³) lei²*S.* „ „ „ di³ (ˈs) le*C.* „ „ „ téi² (ˈshui) ɕlui**Minister (envoy)***M.* 欽差 chˈin¹ chˈai¹*S.* „ „ chung tsˈa*C.* „ „ ɕam ɕhˈái**Minute (time)***M.* 分 fên¹*S.* „ „ fung*C.* 味呢 ɕmi ˈni

— (small)

M. 細小 hsi¹ hsiao³*S.* „ „ si³ ˈsiau*C.* „ „ 微 sai³ ɕméi, or ɕméi sai³**Miss (vb.)***M.* 失 shih¹*S.* „ „ seh*C.* „ „ shat,

To miss the mark*M.* 失中 shih¹ chung¹*S.* „ „ seh tsong²*C.* 唔 „ ɿm chung²**To — an opportunity***M.* 錯過機會 ts'o⁴ kuo⁴
chi¹-hui⁴*S.* „ „ „ „ ts'oo³ koo³
kyi we³*C.* 失機會 shat, ɿkéi wú²**To — the road***M.* 走岔了道 tsou³ ch'a⁴
lo tao⁴*S.* 迷路 mi loo³*C.* 失 „ shat, lò²**Missionary***M.* 傳教的 ch'uan² chiao¹ ti*S.* „ 道个 dzen dau³ kuh*C.* „ 教 (or 道) 人 ɿch'ün
káu² (or tò²) ɿyan**Mistake***M.* 錯 ts'o⁴*S.* „ „ ts'oo²; 差 ts'o⁴*C.* „ „ ts'o²**Mix***M.* 攪和 ch'an¹ ho*S.* 和 'oo³; 併和 ping 'oo³*C.* 攪勻 'káu ɿwan; 調和
ɿ'tú ɿwo**To mix mortar***M.* 和泥 ho² ni²*S.* „ „ 灰 'oo³ nyi hwe*C.* „ „ ɿwo ɿnai**Mobilize***M.* 整備兵士 chêng³ pei⁴
ping¹ shih⁴*S.* „ „ „ „ tsung peh
ping ɿz*C.* „ „ „ „ 'ching péi²
ping ɿsz**Moment***M.* 一會兒 i hu(i)⁴ 'rh*S.* „ 歇 ih hyih*C.* „ 陣 yat, chan²; 一陣
間 yat, chan² ɿkán**He went a — ago***M.* 剛纔走了 kang¹ ts'ai²
tsou³ lo*S.* 方 „ „ faung k'an 'tseu*C.* 佢去咗一陣 𠵼
'k'ui hu² 'cho yat, chan²
chek,**Monday***M.* 禮拜一 li³-pai i¹*S.* „ „ „ 'li pa³ ih*C.* „ „ „ 'lai pái³ yat,**Money***M.* 錢 ch'ien²; 銀子錢
yin²-tzǔ ch'ien²*S.* (1) dzien; 銅錢 dong dien;

銀錢 nyung dzien

C. (1) ɿts'in^{*}; 銀 ɿngan^{*}

Ready money

- M. 現銀子 *hsien⁴ yin²-tzü*
 S. „ „ *yien³nyung*; 現錢
 yien³ dien
 C. 現銀 *yín² ǵngan^{*}*

To change —

- M. 換錢 *huan⁴ ch'ien²*
 S. „ „ *wen³ dien*
 C. 換銀 *wún² ǵngan^{*}*

Monk (Buddhist)

- M. 和尚 *ho²-shang⁴*
 S. „ „ *'oo zaung³*
 C. „ „ *ǵwo shǒng²**

— (Taoist)

- M. 道士 *tao⁴ shih⁴*
 S. „ „ *dau³ 'z*
 C. „ „ *tò² sz² (or sz²*)*

Month

- M. 月 *yüeh⁴*
 S. „ *nyoeh*
 C. „ *yüt₂*

Last —

- M. 上月 *shang⁴ yüeh⁴*
 S. „ „ *'zaung nyoeh*
 C. „ „ *shǒng² yüt₂*

Next —

- M. 下月 *hsia⁴ yüeh⁴*
 S. „ „ *'au nyoeh*
 C. „ „ *há² yüt₂*

What is the day of the month?

- M. 今兒個幾兒了
 chi(n)¹ 'rh ko chi³ 'rh lo
 S. 今朝幾是 *kyung tsau*
 'kyi 'z
 C. 今日月幾呢 *ǵkam*
 yat₂ (or mat₂) yüt₂ 'kéi ǵni

Moon

- M. 月 *yüeh⁴*; 月亮 *yüeh⁴*
 liang
 S. (1) *nyoeh*; (2) *nyoeh liang³*
 C. (1) *yüt₂*

The — is waxing

- M. 月亮長 *yüeh⁴ liang*
 chang³
 S. „ „ 漲 *nyoeh liang³*
 dzang
 C. „ 盈 *yüt₂ ying*; 月生
 大 *yüt₂ sháng tái²*

The — is waning

- M. 月亮虧 *yüeh⁴ liang*
 k'uei¹
 S. „ „ „ *nyoeh liang³*
 kw'e
 C. „ 缺 *yüt₂ k'üt₂*

The — is full

- M. 月亮圓了 *yüeh⁴ liang*
 yüan² lo
 S. „ „ „ „ *nyoeh liang³*
 yoen liau
 C. „ 滿 *yüt₂ 'mún*

Moon, the newM. 月牙兒 yüeh⁴ ya² 'rh

S. 新月 sing nyoeh

C. " " ɕsan yüt₂**More**M. 更多 kêng¹ to¹

S. 越 " yoeh too

C. 更 " kang³ ɕto

— than 200 people

M. 二百多人 êrh⁴ pai³
tó¹ jên²S. " " " " nyi² pak
too nyungC. " " " " yí² pák₂
ɕto ɕyan

Not — than 20 ft. high

M. 高不過兩丈 kao¹
pu⁴ kuo⁴ liang³ chang⁴S. 勿過二丈高 'veh koo²
liang dzang kauC. 不過兩丈高 pat₂
kwo² ɕlōng chōng² ɕkò

A little —

M. 多一點兒 to¹ i¹ tie(n)³
'rhS. " " " 點 too yi 'tien
'tienC. " 啲咁多 ɕto ɕti kom²
ɕto**Is there any more?**M. 還有麼 hai² yu³ moS. " " 勿有 wan 'yeu
'veh 'yeuC. 重 " 有 chung² ɕyáu ɕmò**Morning**M. 早起 tsao³-ch'iS. " " ɕtsau 'chi; 早晨
ɕtsau zung

C. 朝 ɕchíu

Early in the —M. 清早 ch'ing¹ tsao³

S. " " ts'ing ɕtsau

C. 朝頭早 ɕchíu ɕt'áu ɕtsò

MostM. 頂多 ting³ to¹; 最多
tsui⁴ to¹S. (1) 'ting too; (2) tsoe² tooC. 至多 chí² ɕto**Mother**M. 母親 mu³-ch'in

S. " " ɕmoo ts'ing

C. " " mò ɕts'an; 老母
ɕlò ɕmò**Motor**M. 汽車 ch'i⁴ ch'ê¹; 摩托
車 mo²-t'ê⁴ ch'ê¹S. (1) chí² ts'oC. 電車 tín² ɕch'é

Mountain

- M.* 山 shan¹
S. „ san
C. „ shán

Mouth

- M.* 嘴 tsui³; 口 k'ou³
S. „ 'ts; „ 'k'eu
C. (2) 'hau

— of a river

- M.* 河口 ho² k'ou³
S. „ „ 'oo 'k'eu
C. „ „ ho 'hau

Move

- M.* 動 tung⁴; 挪 no²
S. „ 'dong; „ na
C. „ tung²; 郁 yuk,

To — one's abode

- M.* 搬家 pan¹ chia¹
S. „ 場 pen dzang
C. „ 屋 pún uk,

Much

- M.* 多 to¹
S. „ too
C. „ to

— better

- M.* 好多了 hao³ to¹ lo
S. „ 得多 'hau tuh too
C. „ „ „ 'hò tak, to

Twice as much

- M.* 多一倍 to¹ i pei⁴
S. „ „ „ too ih be³
C. „ „ „ to yat, p'ui³

How — ?

- M.* 多少 to¹-shao³
S. 幾化 'kyi hau³
C. 多少呢 to 'shfú ni;
 幾多 'kéi to

Mud

- M.* 泥 ni²
S. 爛泥 lan² nyi
C. 泥 nai

A — wall

- M.* 土牆 t'u³ ch'iang²
S. 泥 „ nyi ziang
C. „ „ nai ts'öng

Mulberry (tree)

- M.* 桑樹 sang¹ shu⁴
S. „ „ saung zu³
C. „ „ song shü³

Mule

- M.* 騾子 lo²-tzü
S. „ „ loo 'ts
C. „ lui

Must

- M.* 必 pi⁴; 必須 pi⁴ hsü¹;
 必得 pi⁴ tei³
S. (1) pih; (2) pih sui; (3) pih
 tuh.
C. (1) pít,

Mutiny

- M.* 反 fan³; 作反 tso⁴ fan³
S. (1) fan; 造 „ 'zau fan
C. (1) fan; (2) tsok_o fan

Mutton

- M.* 羊肉 yang² jou⁴
S. „ „ yang nyok
C. „ „ yǒng yuk₂

My

- M.* 我的 wo³ ti
S. „ 个 ngoo kuh
C. „ 嘅 ngo ke³

Nail (sb.)

- M.* 釘子 ting¹-tzǔ
S. „ ting
C. „ teng†
 — (vb.)

- M.* 釘 ting¹; 釘上 ting¹
 shang
S. (1) ting; 敲釘 k'au ting
C. (1) teng†

Name

- M.* 名字 ming²-tzǔ
S. „ 字 ming-z²
C. „ meng†

Family —

- M.* 姓 hsing⁴
S. „ sing²
C. „ sing²

What is his name?

- M.* 他姓甚麼 t'a¹ hsing⁴
 shê(n)²-mo
S. 伊 „ 啥 yi sing² sa²
C. 佢 „ 乜 k'ui sing² mat,

What is your —?

- M.* 貴姓 kwei⁴ hsing⁴
S. „ „ kwe² sing²
C. „ „ kwai² sing²

Narrow

- M.* 窄 chai³
S. 狹 'ah
C. 窄 chák_o

Naval

- M.* 海軍的 hai³ chün ti
S. „ „ 个 he kyuin kuh
C. 水師 'shui sz; 海軍
 hoi kwan
 — officer

- M.* 水師官 shui³ shih kuan¹
S. „ „ „ 'soe-s kwen
C. „ „ „ 'shui sz kwún
 — engagement

- M.* 水戰 shui³ chan⁴
S. „ „ „ 'soe tsen²
C. „ „ „ 'shui chin²

Navy

- M.* 水軍 shui³ chün¹; 海軍
 hai³ chün¹
S. (1) 'soe kyuin; (2) he kyuin
C. (1) 'shui kwan; (2) hoi kwan

Near

- M. 近 chin⁴
 S. „ jŭng
 C. „ kan² or ʃk'an

Necessary

- M. 須要 hsü¹ yao⁴; 要緊 yao⁴ chin³
 S. (2) iau³ 'kyung; 必須个 pih sui kuh
 C. (1) ʃsui yíú²; (2) yíú² 'kan

— articles

- M. 需用的東西 hsü¹ yung⁴ ti tung¹-hsi
 S. 必需用个物事 pih sui yong kuh meh-z'
 C. 須要嘅物件 ʃsui yíú² ke² mat₂ kín²*

Neck

- M. 脖子 po²-tzǔ
 S. 頸骨 'kyung kweh
 C. „ 'keng†

Need (vb.)

- M. 須用 hsü¹ yung⁴; 要用 yao⁴ yung⁴
 S. 要 iau²; (2) iau² yong²
 C. 須要 ʃsui yíú²

You — not return

- M. 你不用回來 ni² pu yung⁴ hui² lai

- S. 儂勿必回來 nong² 'veh pih we le

- C. 你唔使翻嚟 ʃnéi ʃm 'shai fán-ʃlai

No — to be frightened

- M. 不必害怕 pu pi⁴ hai⁴ p'a⁴
 S. 勿要怕 'veh iau² p'o²
 C. 唔使慌 ʃm 'shai ʃong

Needle

- M. 針 chên¹
 S. „ tsung
 C. „ ʃcham

Neither

- M. 不 pu⁴
 S. 勿 'veh
 C. 亦不 yik₂ pat,

— nor

- M. 不 pu⁴ 不 pu⁴
 S. 勿 'veh 勿 'veh
 C. 唔係 ʃm hai² 又唔係 yaú² ʃm hai²

Net

- M. 網 wang³
 S. „ 'maung
 C. „ 'mong

Never

M. 總沒 tsung³ mei²; 永不 yung³ pu⁴

S. 決勿 kyoe^h 'veh; 總勿 dzong 'veh

C. 未曾 _{ts'ung} mei ts'ang²; 從未 _{ts'ung} mei

— permit

M. 永不准 yung³ pu chun³

S. „ 勿許 iung 'veh 'hyui

C. „ 不准 _{swing} pat, 'chun

New

M. 新 hsin¹

S. „ sing

C. „ _{san}

News

M. 新聞 hsin¹ wên²; 信息 hsin¹ hsi

S. (1) sing vung; (2) sing² sih

C. (1) _{san} _{man}

There is no — (of somebody)

M. 沒有信兒 mei² yu³ hsi(n)⁴ 'rh

S. 毫無信息 'au m sing² sih

C. 有聲氣 _{mò} sheng + héi²

Newspaper

M. 新聞報 hsin¹ wên² pao⁴

S. „ „ „ sing vung pau²

C. „ „ 紙 _{san} _{man} 'chí

Next

M. 次 tz'u⁴; 第二 ti⁴ êrh⁴

S. (1) ts'ɔ; (2) di² nyi²

C. (2) tai² yf²

— day

M. 第二天 ti⁴ êrh⁴ t'ien¹

S. „ „ 日 di² nyi² nyih

C. „ „ „ tai² yf² yat₂

— year

M. 明年 ming² nien²

S. „ „ ming nyien

C. „ „ _{ming} _{án}; 出年 chut, _{án}

Night

M. 夜 yeh⁴

S. „ ya²

C. „ ye²; 晚 _{mán}

At —

M. 夜裏 yêh⁴ li; 夜間 yeh⁴ chien

S. (1) ya² 'li

C. 晚間 _{man} _{kán}

The whole —

M. 一夜 i¹ yeh⁴

S. „ „ ih ya²; 全夜 dzien ya²

C. 成 „ _{sheng} + ye²

Midnight

M. 半夜 pan⁴ yeh⁴

S. „ „ 把 pen² ya² 'po

C. „ „ pún² ye²

Nine

M. 九 chiu³

S. „ 'kyeu

C. „ 'kaú

No

M. 不是 pu² shih

S. 勿 „ 'veh 'z; 沒 meh

C. 唔係 ɛm hai²

— use

M. 沒用處 mei² yung⁴ ch'uS. 無 „ m yong³C. 冇 „ ɛmò yung²

Noon

M. 晌午 shang³ wu

S. 日中 nyih tsong

C. 晏晝 án² chaú²

None

M. 沒有 mei² yu³S. 無 沒 m meh; 勿有
'veh 'yeu

C. 冇 ɛmò

North

M. 北 pei³

S. „ pok

C. „ pak,

That town is in the —

M. 那個城在北邊 na⁴-
ko ch'êng² tsai pei³ pienS. 該個城是在北邊
ke kuh dzung 'z 'dze pok
pienC. 個城喺北邊 ko²
ɛsheng⁺ 'hai pak, pín²

The — Pole

M. 北極 pei³ chi²

S. „ „ pok juh

C. „ „ pak, kik₂

— west

M. 西北 hsi¹ pei³

S. „ „ si pok

C. „ „ ɛsai pak,

Nose

M. 鼻子 pi²-tzü

S. „ 頭 bih deu

C. „ 哥 p'ei² ɛko

Nose-bag

M. 馬鼻囊 ma³ pi⁴ nang²S. „ „ 袋 'mo bih de³C. „ „ 囊 ɛma p'ei² ɛnong

Not

M. 不 pu⁴

S. 勿 'veh

C. „ pat₂; 唔係 ɛm hai²

Nothing

M. 沒有甚麼 mei² yu³
shê(n)²-moS. 無啥 m sa²

C. 冇野 ɛmò ɛye

There is nothing to eat

M. 沒有吃的 mei² yu³
ch'ih¹ ti

S. 無 啥 „ m sa³ chuh

C. 有 野 食 ʔmò ʔye shik₂

To fear —

M. 甚麼也不怕 shê(n)²-
mo yeh³ pu p'a⁴

S. 勿 怕 啥 'veh p'o³ sa³

C. 乜 野 都 唔 怕 mat,
ʔye ɔ̀tò ʔm p'a²

Notice (noun)

M. 告白 kao⁴ pai²

S. „ „ kau³ bak

C. „ „ ko³ pák₂

Official —

M. 告示 kao⁴ shih⁴

S. „ „ kau³ z²

C. „ „ ko³ shí²

— (vb.)

M. 理 會 li³ hui⁴

S. „ „ ʔli we³

C. „ „ ʔléi wúí²

November

M. 十一月 shih³ i¹ yüeh⁴

S. „ „ zeh ih nyoeh

C. 英 十 一 月 ying shap₂
yat, yüt₂

Now

M. 現在 hsien⁴ tsai⁴; 如今
ju² chin¹

S. (1) yien³ 'dze; 眼前 'ngan
zien

C. (1) yín² tsoi²; (2) yü kam;
而 家 yí ká

Nowhere

M. 那 裏 也 沒 有 na³-li
yeh³ mei² yu³

S. 無 啥 地 方 m sa³ di³
faung

C. 有 處 ʔmo ch'ü³

— to be found

M. 四 面 不 見 ssü⁴ mien⁴
pu chien⁴

S. „ „ 勿 „ s' mien³
'veh kyien³

C. 有 處 可 尋 得 出 ʔmò
ch'ü³ 'ho ʔts'am tak, ch'ut;
四 處 尋 不 見 sz²
ch'ü³ ʔts'am pat, kín³

Number

M. 數 目 shu⁴ mu⁴; 數 shu⁴

S. „ „ soo mok; „ soo

C. „ „ shò³ muk₂; „ shò³

Oats

M. 油 麥 yu² mai⁴

S. 燕 „ ien³ mak

C. 大 „ tái² mak₂; 粗 麥
ʔts'ò mak₂

Obedient

- M. 聽話 t'ing¹ hua⁴
 S. 順從 zung² dzong²; 聽人說話 t'ing nyung seh wo²
 C. 聽話嘅 t'eng¹ wá² ke²

Obey

- M. 聽命 t'ing¹ ming⁴; 順從 shun⁴ ts'ung²
 S. 依順 i zung²; 肯聽說話 k'ung t'ing seh wo²
 C. 聽話 t'eng¹ wá²

Oblong

- M. 長方 ch'ang² fang¹
 S. „ „ dzang faung
 C. „ „ ch'ong fong; 日字樣 yat² tsz² yong²*

Observe

- M. 看 k'an⁴; 觀看 kuan¹ k'an⁴
 S. (1) k'oen²; 看察 k'oen² ts'ah
 C. 睇 t'ai

To — the law

- M. 守王法 shou³ wang² fa
 S. „ „ „ 'seu waung fah
 C. „ 國 „ 'shau kwok, fát.

Obstinate

- M. 固執 ku⁴ chih
 S. „ „ koo² tsuh
 C. „ „ kwú² chap,

He has a very obstinate disposition

- M. 他的脾氣狠硬 t'a¹ ti p'í²-ch'í hên³ ying⁴
 S. 伊个性情極固執 yi kuh sing² dzing juh koo² tsuh
 C. 佢嘅皮氣好硬嘅 k'ui ke² p'í² héi² hò ngáng² ke²

Obtain

- M. 得 tē²
 S. „ 到 tuh tau²
 C. „ tak,

Occupy (mil.)

- M. 佔 chan⁴
 S. „ 據 tsien² kyui²
 C. „ „ chím² kui²

To — a house

- M. 住房 chu⁴ fang²
 S. „ „ dzu² vaung
 C. „ 屋 chü² uk,

Ocean

- M. 大海 ta⁴ hai³; 洋 yang²
 S. „ „ doo² 'he; „ yang
 C. „ „ tái² 'hoi; „ yōng

The Pacific —

- M. 太平洋 t'ai⁴ p'ing² yang²
 S. „ „ „ t'a² bing yang
 C. „ „ „ tái² ping yōng

October

- M. 十月 shih² yüeh⁴
 S. „ „ zeh nyoeh
 C. 英十月 ying shap₂ yüt₂

Of (sign of the possessive)

- M. 的 ti¹
 S. 个 kuh
 C. 嘅 ke³

Off

Be —

- M. 走罷 tsou³ pa; 去罷
 ch'ü⁴ pa
 S. (1) 'tseu 'ba; (2) chi² 'ba
 C. 扯咯 'ch'e lo^{ko}

To take — one's clothes

- M. 脫衣裳 t'o¹ i¹-shang
 S. „ „ „ t'oeh i-zaung
 C. „ „ „ t'üt₀ yí shōng

Offer

- M. 奉上 fêng⁴ shang⁴; (a
 gift) 送 sung⁴
 S. (1) vong² 'zaung; (2) song²
 C. (1) fung² shōng²; (2) sung²

To — a price

- M. 出價 ch'u¹ chia⁴; 還價
 huan² chia⁴
 S. (1) ts'eh ka²; (2) wan ka²
 C. (1) ch'ut, ká²

Officer

- M. 官 kuan
 S. „ kwen
 C. „ kwún

A military officer

- M. 武官 wu³ kuan¹
 S. „ „ 'voo kwen
 C. „ (軍)官 'mò(,kwan), kwún

A naval —

- M. 水師官 shui³ shih¹ kuan¹
 S. „ „ „ 'soe-s kwen; 海
 軍官 'he kyuin kwen

- C. 水師官 'shui sz kwún

Often

- M. 常 ch'ang²; 好些次
 hao³ hsieh tz'ü⁴
 S. 好幾回 'hau 'kyi we
 C. 屢次 'lui ts'z'

• How — ?

- M. 多少次 to¹ shao³ tz'ü⁴
 S. 幾回 'kyi we
 C. „ 多次 'ki to ts'z'

Oil

- M. 油 yu²
 S. „ yeu
 C. „ yáu

Kerosene —

- M. 煤油 mei² yu²; 火油
 huo³ yu²
 S. (1) me yeu; (2) 'hoo yeu
 C. 火水 'fo 'shui

— cloth

- M. 油布 yu² pu⁴
 S. „ „ yeu poo²
 C. „ „ yáu pò²

Old

M. 老 lao³; 舊 chiu⁴

S. „ „ lau; „ „ jeu³

C. „ „ ʎò; „ „ kau²

An — man

M. 老頭兒 lao³ t'ou² 'rh

S. „ „ „ 子 'lau deu 'ts

C. „ „ 大 ʎò tái²*

— clothes

M. 舊衣裳 chiu⁴ i¹-shang

S. „ „ „ „ jeu³ i-zaung

C. „ „ „ kau² yí; 古衣 'kwú
yi

How — are you?

M. 貴庚 kwei⁴ kêng

(to an elderly man) 高壽
kao¹ shou⁴

(to a child) 幾歲 chi³ sui⁴

(to an inferior) 你多大
年紀 ni³ to¹ ta nien²
chi

S. 貴庚 kwe³ kang

(to an elderly man) 高壽
kau zeu³

(to a child) 幾歲 'kyi soe³

(to an inferior) 儂幾化
年紀 nong³ 'kyi hau³
nyien kyi³

C. 貴庚 kwai³ kang

(to an elderly man) 高壽
kò shau²

(to a child; to an inferior)

幾多歲 'kéi to sui³

On

M. 上 shang⁴

S. „ „ „ zaung

C. „ „ shǒng²; 在 tsoi²

— the ground

M. 在地下 tsai⁴ ti⁴ hsia

S. 拉 „ „ „ la³ di³ 'au³

C. 在 „ „ „ tsoi² téi² shǒng²

— this side

M. 在這邊 tsai⁴ chē⁴ pien

S. „ „ „ 第 „ „ 'dze di³ pien

C. „ „ „ 呢 „ „ tsoi² ʎi pín²

— purpose

M. 故意 ku⁴ i⁴; 特意 t'ê⁴ i⁴

S. „ „ „ „ koo³ i³; 有 „ „ „ yeu i³

C. „ „ „ „ kwú² yf; 特登 tak²
tang

— top

M. 上邊 shang⁴ pien; 上頭
shang⁴ t'ou

S. (1) 'zaung pien

C. 在上邊 tsoi² shǒng² pín²

Once

M. 一次 i¹ tz'ü⁴; 一回 i¹
hui²

S. (1) ih ts²; (2) ih we

C. (1) yat, ts'z²; (2) yat, ʎwú

More than once

M. 不止一次 pu chih³ i
tz'ü⁴

S. 勿 " " 回 'veh 'ts ih
we

C. 多過 " 次 ,to kwo³
yat, ts'z²

At —

M. 立刻 li⁴ k'o⁴

S. " " lih k'uh

C. 卽 " tsik, hak,

One

M. 一 i¹; 一個 i¹-ko

S. " ih; " 个 ih kuh

C. " yat,

— by —

M. 一個一個的 i¹-ko i¹-
ko ti

S. " 一 ih ih; 一个一
个 ih kuh ih kuh

C. 逐一逐二 chuk₂ yat,
chuk₂ yf²

Onion

M. 葱 ts'ung¹

S. " ts'ong

C. " 頭 ,ts'ung t'ái

Only

M. 但 tan⁴; 但只 tan⁴ chih³

S. " dan³; 單獨 tan dok

C. " tán²

There is only one

M. 不過一個 pu² kuo⁴
i¹-ko

S. " " " 个 pih koo³
ih kuh

C. " " " 個 pat, kwo³
yat, ko³

Not —

M. 不但 pu² tan⁴

S. 勿 " 'veh dan³

C. 不獨 pat, tuk₂

— want one

M. 單要一個 tan¹ yao⁴

S. " " " 个 tan iau³ ih
kuh

C. " " " 個 tán yíu³
yat, ko³

Open (vb.)

M. 開 k'ai¹

S. " k'e

C. " ,hoi

It is —

M. 開了 k'ai¹ lo

S. " 哉 k'e tse

C. " 咯 ,hoi lok².

Unable to —

M. 開不開 k'ai¹ pu k'ai¹

S. 勿能 " 'veh nung k'e

C. 唔開得 ,m ,hoi tak,

Or

M. 或 *huo*⁴

S. „ ‘ok

C. „ wák₂

Will you do it — not?

M. 你做不做 *ni*³ *tso*⁴ *pu*
*tso*⁴

S. 做勿做 *tsoo*³ ‘*veh* *tsoo*³

C. 你做唔做 *‘néi* *tsò*² *ɿm*
*tsò*²

Three — four

M. 三四個 *san*¹ *ssü*⁴ *ko*

S. „ „ 个 *san* *s*³ *kuh*

C. „ „ 個 *‘sám* *sz*³ *ko*³

Orange

M. 橘子 *chü*²-*tzü*

S. „ „ *kyoeh* ‘*ts*

C. 橙 *‘ch*‘*áng**; 柑 *‘kom*

Order (vb.)

M. 命 *ming*⁴; 吩咐 *fên*¹-*fu*

S. (2) *fung* *foo*³; 命令 *ming*³
*ling*³

C. (1) *ming*²; (2) *‘fan* *fú*³

— (noun)

M. 命 *ming*⁴; 令 *ling*⁴

S. „ 令 *ming*³ *ling*³

C. „ *ming*²; (2) *ling*²

To put in —

M. 安排 *an*¹ *p’ái*²

S. „ „ *oen* *ba*

C. „ „ *‘on* *‘p’ái*

In regular order

M. 挨次 *ai*¹ *tz’ü*⁴

S. „ „ *a* *ts*^o

C. 依 „ *yí* *ts’z*³

Other

M. 別 *pieh*²

S. „ *bih*

C. „ *pít*₂; 第二 *tai*² *yf*
— *men*

M. 別的人 *pieh*² *ti* *jên*²

S. „ 人 *bih* *nyung*

C. „ 的人 *pít*₂ *oti* *yan*

Our

M. 我們的 *wo*³ *mên* *ti*; 僭
們的 *tsa*² *mên* *ti*

S. 我呢个 *‘ngoo* *nyi*³ *kuh*

C. „ 咁嘅 *‘ngo* *téi*² *ke*³

Out

To come —

M. 出來 *ch’u*¹ *lai*

S. „ „ *ts’eh* *le*

C. „ 嚟 *ch’ut*, *‘lai*

Gone —

M. 出門了 *ch’u*¹ *mên*² *lo*

S. „ 去哉 *ts’eh* *chi*³ *tse*

C. „ „ 咯 *ch’ut*, *hui*³ *lo*^k

Go —

M. 出去罷 *ch’u*¹ *ch’ü*⁴ *pa*

S. „ „ „ *ts’eh* *chi*³ *ba*

C. „ „ *ch’ut*, *hui*³

Outside

M. 外頭 wai⁴-t'ou

S. „ „ nga³ deu

C. „ „ ngoi² t'au

— the city

M. 城外 ch'êng² wai⁴

S. „ „ dzung nga³

C. „ „ sheng¹ ngoi²

Over (above)

M. 上 shang⁴

S. „ „ 'zaung

C. „ „ shōng²

To cross —

M. 過 kuo⁴

S. „ „ koo³

C. „ „ kwo³

Left —

M. 剩下的 shêng⁴ hsia⁴ ti

S. „ „ 个 dzung³ 'au kuh

C. 餘剩 yü shing²

Own (vb.)

M. 有 yu³

S. „ „ yeu

C. „ „ 'yau

— (confess)

M. 認 jên⁴

S. „ „ nyung³

C. „ „ ying²

My —

M. 我自己的 wo³ tzü⁴ chi
ti

S. 我自家个 'ngoo z' ka
kuh

C. „ „ 己嘅 'ngo tsz² 'kéi
ke³

Pace

M. 步 pu⁴ [in lineal measure,
a 步 = 2 paces = 5 feet]

S. 步 boo³

C. „ „ pò²

Pack (vb.)

M. 裝 chuang¹

S. „ „ tsaung

C. „ „ chong

— saddle

M. 馱鞍 to⁴ an¹

S. „ „ doo oen

C. (Not known in Canton.)

Pagoda

M. 塔 t'a³

S. „ „ t'ah

C. „ „ t'áp_o

Pain

M. 疼 t'êng²

S. 痛 t'ong³

C. „ „ t'ung³

To feel —

M. 覺着疼 chüeh² cho
t'êng²

S. „ „ 痛 kauh dzak
t'ong³

C. 見痛 kín³ t'ung³

Paper*M.* 紙 *chih*³*S.* „ *‘ts**C.* „ *‘chí***A sheet of —***M.* 一張紙 *i¹ chang¹ chih³**S.* „ „ „ *ih tsang ‘ts**C.* „ „ „ *yat, chōng ‘chí***Blotting —***M.* 吃墨紙 *ch‘ih¹ mo⁴ chih³**S.* 吸 „ „ *hyih muh ‘ts**C.* 索 „ „ *sok_o mak₂ ‘chí***Pardon (vb.)***M.* 饒恕 *jao² shu*; 寬免 *k‘uan¹ mien³**S.* 饒赦 *nyau ‘so**C.* 赦免 *she³ ‘mín***Part***M.* 分 *fēn¹**S.* „ *vung²**C.* „ *fan²***A fourth —***M.* 四分之一 *ssü⁴ fēn¹ chih¹**S.* „ „ „ „ *s² vung² ts ih**C.* „ „ „ „ *sz² fan² chí yat,***The greater —***M.* 多半 *to¹ pan⁴**S.* 大 „ *doo³ pen³**C.* „ „ *tái² pún³***Pass (defile)***M.* 山口子 *shan¹ k‘ou³-tzü**S.* 關 „ *kwan ‘k‘eu**C.* 山峽 *shan háp₂***A mountain —***M.* 山嶺 *shan¹ ling³**S.* „ „ *san ling**C.* „ 峽 *shan háp₂***— (vb.)***M.* 過 *kuo⁴**S.* „ *koo³**C.* „ *kwo³***Unable to —***M.* 過不去 *kuo⁴ pu ch‘ü⁴**S.* 勿能過去 *‘veh nung koo³ chí²**C.* 唔過得 *‘m kwo³ tak,***Passage***M.* 過道 *kuo⁴ tao⁴*; 路 *lu⁴**S.* (2) *loo³*; 通路 *t‘ong loo**C.* (2) *lò²*; 道 „ *tò² lò²***— by water***M.* 水路 *shui³ lu⁴**S.* „ „ *‘s loo³**C.* „ „ *‘shui lò²***Passport***M.* 護照 *hu⁴ chao**S.* „ „ *‘oo³ tsau³**C.* „ „ *wú² chíú³*

Password

M. 口號 k'ou³ hao⁴

S. „ „ k'eu 'au'

C. 暗 „ om³ hò²

Path

M. 小道兒 hsiao³ tao⁴ 'rh

S. „ „ 'siau loo'

C. „ „ 'sfú lè²

Patrol (noun)

M. 巡兵 hsün² ping¹

S. „ „ dzing ping

C. „ „ ɛts'un ping

Pay

M. 給錢 kei³ ch'ien²; 開錢
k'ai¹ ch'ien²

S. (2) k'e dien; 付 foo'

C. 俾 'péi; 交 káu

To — a debt

M. 還賬 huan² chang⁴

S. „ „ wan tsang'

C. „ „ ɛwán chǒng'

Unable to —

M. 還不起 huan² pu ch'i³

S. „ „ 勿 „ wan 'veh 'chi

C. 唔還得 ɛm ɛwán tak,

Peace

M. 平安 p'ing² an¹

S. „ „ bing oen; 平和
bing 'oo

C. „ „ ɛp'ing ɛon; 和 ɛwo

Pen

M. 筆 pi³

S. „ „ pih

C. „ „ pat,

Pencil

M. 鉛筆 ch'ien¹ pi³

S. „ „ k'an pih

C. „ „ ɛyün pat,

People

M. 人 jên²; 百姓 po³ hsing

S. „ „ nyung; „ „ pak sing'

C. „ „ ɛyan; „ „ pák_o sing'

The common —

M. 民人 min² jên²

S. 子民 'ts ming

C. 人 „ ɛyan ɛman

Pepper

M. 胡椒麵兒 hu² chiao
mie(n)⁴ 'rh

S. „ „ 粉 'oo tsiau 'fung

C. „ „ 末 ɛwú ɛtsú mút₂

Perhaps

M. 或 huo⁴; 或者 huo⁴ ché³

S. „ „ 'ok; „ „ 'ok 'tse;

恐伯 'k'ong p'ó'

C. „ „ wák₂; (2) wák₂ 'che

— he will not come

M. 他許不來 t'a¹ hsu³
pu lai²

S. 伊多半勿來 yi too
pen' 'veh le

C. 佢或者唔嚟 k'ui
wák₂ 'che ɛm ɛlai

Photograph (noun)*M.* 照的像 chao⁴ ti hsiang⁴*S.* 小照 'siau tsau³*C.* 相 söng²*

— (vb.)

M. 照像 chao⁴ hsiang⁴*S.* 拍小照 p'ak 'siau tsau³*C.* 影相 'ying söng²***Pick***M.* 摘 chai¹; 採 ts'ai³*S.* (2) 'ts'e*C.* (1) chák₂**To — up***M.* 檢起來 chien³ ch'i lai*S.* 拾 „ „ zih 'chi le*C.* 拈 „ 嚟 nfm 'héi lai**To — out***M.* 揀 chien³; 挑 t'iao¹; 選 hsüan³*S.* (1) 'kan; (2) t'iau; (3) 'sien*C.* (1) 'kán; (2) t'íu**Picoul***M.* 担 (or 石) tan⁴*S.* „ tan³*C.* „ tám²**Piece***M.* 塊 k'uai⁴*S.* „ k'we³*C.* „ fái²**A piece of wood***M.* 一塊木頭 i² k'uai⁴mu⁴-t'ou*S.* „ „ „ „ ih k'we³

mok 'deu

C. „ „ „ yat, fái² muk₂**Pier***M.* 馬頭 ma³-t'ou*S.* 碼 „ 'mo deu*C.* 馬 „ 'má t'áu***Pig***M.* 猪 chu¹*S.* „ ts*C.* „ chü**Pillow***M.* 枕頭 chên³-t'ou*S.* „ „ tsung² deu*C.* „ „ 'cham t'áu**Pilot***M.* 引水人 yin³ shui³ jên²;領船的 ling³ ch'uan² ti*S.* (1) 'yung 's nyung; 領江

个 'ling kaung kuh

C. 帶水人 tái³ 'shui yan**Pin***M.* 釘子針 ting¹-tzü chên¹*S.* 洋針 yang tsung*C.* 大頭針 tái² t'áu cham**Pincers***M.* 鉗子 ch'ien⁴-tzü*S.* „ jien*C.* „ k'ím

Pine (tree)*M.* 松樹 sung¹ shu⁴*S.* " " song zu³*C.* " " ɕts'ung shü²**Pipe***M.* (tobacco) 烟袋 yen¹ tai⁴;
(stove) " 筒 yen¹ t'ung*S.* (tobacco) " " ien dong;
(stove) " 通 ien t'ong*C.* (tobacco and stove) 烟筒
yín ɕt'ung^{*}**Pistol***M.* 手鎗 shou³ ch'iang¹*S.* " " 'seu ts'iang*C.* " " 'shau¹ ts'öng**Place***M.* 地方 ti⁴ fang*S.* " " di³ faung*C.* " " téi² fong**Plan***M.* 法子 fa²-tzü; 主意
chu²-i*S.* (1) fah 'ts; (2) 'tsu i³*C.* (1) fát₀ 'tsz**To devise a —***M.* 想法子 hsiang³ fa²-tzü*S.* " " " 'siang fah 'ts*C.* 設 " ch'ít₀ fát₀**— of a house***M.* 房樣子 fang² yang⁴-tzü*S.* " " " vaung yang³ 'ts*C.* 屋嘅形圖 uk, ke³ ying³
ɕt'ò**Plant (vb.)***M.* 種 chung⁴*S.* " tsong³*C.* " chung³**— (noun)***M.* 花草 hua¹ ts'ao³*S.* " " hwo 'ts'au*C.* 草木 'ts'ò muk₂**Plate***M.* 盤子 p'an²-tzü; 碟子
tieh²-tzü*S.* 盆 " bung 'ts*C.* 碟 tít₂**Play (vb.)***M.* 玩 wan²; 玩耍 wan²
shua³*S.* 勃相 beh siang³*C.* 頑 ɕwán^{*}; 頑耍 ɕwán 'shá**To — cards***M.* 鬪牌 tou⁴ p'ai²*S.* " " teu³ ba*C.* 打紙牌 'tá 'chi ɕp'ái^{*}**To — music***M.* 作樂 tso⁴ yüeh⁴*S.* " " tsoo³ yak*C.* " " tsok₀ ngok₂**Please***M.* 請 ch'ing³*S.* " 'ts'ing*C.* " 'tseng[†]

Please take a seat*M.* 請坐 ch'ing³ tso⁴*S.* „ „ ts'ing 'zoo*C.* „ „ tseng⁺ ts'o⁺**As you —***M.* 隨便 sui² pien⁴*S.* „ „ dzoe bien³*C.* „ 得你 ts'ui tak, néi**He was very pleased***M.* 他狠喜歡 t'a¹ hên³
hsi³ huan*S.* 伊極 „ „ yi juh 'hyi
hwen*C.* 佢見好 „ 喜 k'ui
kín³ 'hò fún 'héi**Plenty***M.* 多 to¹; 豐足 fêng¹ tsü²*S.* „ too; „ „ fong tsok*C.* (2) fung tsuk; 豐盛 fung
shing²**Plough (noun)***M.* 耕地犁 kêng¹ ti⁴ li²*S.* 犁 li*C.* „ lai**Plunder (vb.)***M.* 搶 ch'iang³; 搶奪
ch'iang³ to²*S.* (1) ts'iang; (2) ts'iang doeh*C.* (1) ts'öng; 搶劫 ts'öng
kíp_o**Pocket***M.* 兜子 tou¹-tzü; 口袋
k'ou³ tai⁴*S.* 衣裳袋 i zaung de³; 衣
兜 i teu*C.* 袋 toi²***Point***M.* 尖兒 chie(n)¹-rh*S.* „ 頭 tsien deu; 點 tien*C.* „ 處 tsím ch'ü**Poison***M.* 毒藥 tu² yao⁴*S.* „ „ dok yak*C.* „ „ tuk₂ yök₂**Pole***M.* 杆子 kan¹ tzü*S.* 竿 koen; 棒 'baung*C.* „ kon; 杠 kong²**A carrying —***M.* 扁担 pien³ tan*S.* „ „ 'pien tan²*C.* 擔竿 tám³ kon**To carry on a —***M.* 擡槓 t'ai² kang⁴*S.* „ „ de kaung*C.* 擔 tám**To — a boat***M.* 撐船 ch'êng¹ ch'uan²*S.* „ „ ts'ang zen*C.* „ „ ch'áng shün

Pony

- M.* 馬 *ma*³
S. „ *'mo*
C. (小) 馬 (*'sfú*) *'má*

Pool

- M.* 水坑 *shui*³ *k'êng*¹; 池
 子 *ch'ih*² *tzü*
S. 池 *dz*
C. „ *'ch'í*

Poor

- M.* 窮 *ch'üung*²; 貧窮 *p'in*²
 *ch'üung*²
S. (1) *jong*; (2) *bing jong*
C. (1) *'k'ung*; (2) *'p'an 'k'ung*

Pork

- M.* 猪肉 *chu*¹ *jou*
S. „ „ *ts nyok*
C. „ „ *'chü yuk*₂

Port

- M.* 海口 *hai*³ *k'ou*³
S. „ „ *'he 'k'eu*
C. „ „ *'hoi 'haú*

Treaty —

- M.* 通商口岸 *t'ung*¹ *shang*¹
 *k'ou*³ *an*⁴
S. „ „ „ „ *t'ong saung*
 *'k'eu ngoen*²
C. „ „ „ „ *t'ung 'shöng*
 *'haú ngon*²

Possess

- M.* 有 *yu*³
S. „ *'yeu*
C. „ *'yaú*

Possible

- M.* 可行的 *k'o*³ *hsing*² *ti*
S. 能彀个 *nung keu*³ *kuh*
C. 可以做得 *'ho 'yí tsò*²
 tak,

— to do

- M.* 做得來 *tso*⁴ *tê lai*²
S. „ „ „ *tsoo*³ *tuh le*
C. „ „ 嚟 *tsò*² *tak*, *lai*

Post-office

- M.* 書信館 *shu*¹ *hsin*⁴ *kuan*³
S. „ „ „ *su sing*² *'kwen*
C. „ „ „ *'shü sun*² *'kwün*

The Chinese —

- M.* 郵政局 *yu*² *chêng chü*²
S. „ „ „ *yeu tsung*³ *jok*
C. „ „ „ *'yaú ching*² *kuk*₂

Potato

- M.* 山藥頭 *shan*¹ *yao t'ou*²
S. „ 芋 *san yui*
C. 薯仔 *'shü 'tsai*

Pour

- M.* 倒 *tao*⁴
S. „ *'tau*
C. „ *'tò*

To — out

- M.* 倒出來 *tao*⁴ *ch'ü lai*
S. „ „ „ *'tau ts'eh le*
C. „ „ 嚟 *'tò ch'ut*, *lai*

Powder

M. 麵 mien⁴; 粉 fên³

S. (2) 'fung

C. (2) 'fan

Gun —

M. 火藥 huó³ yao⁴

S. " " 'hoo yak

C. " " 'fo yök₂

Practice

M. 規矩 kuei¹ chü

S. " " kwe 'kyui

C. " " k'wai 'kui

Practise

M. 學習 hsüeh² hsi²; 演習
yên³ hsiS. " " 'auh dzih; 練習
lien² dzih •C. (1) hok₂ tsáp₂; (2) 'yín tsáp₂

Praise

M. 說好 shuo¹ hao³; 誇
k'ua¹; 誇獎 k'ua¹ chiangS. (1) soeh 'hau; 稱讚 ts'ung
tsan²

C. (2) k'wá; (3) k'wá 'tsöng

Prefer

M. 寧願 ning² yüan⁴S. 情 " 要 dzing nyoen²
iau²; 喜歡 'hyi hwenC. 寧願 ñing yün²*

What do you prefer?

M. 你喜歡甚麼 ni³ hsi³
huan shê(n)²-moS. 儂歡喜啥 nong² hwen
'hyi sa²C. 你中意邊... 更多
呢 néi chung yf² pín....
kang² to ni

Prepare

M. 預備 yü⁴ peiS. " " yui² be²C. " " yü² péi²

President of the Republic

M. 大總統 ta⁴ tsung³ t'ung³S. " " doo² 'tsong t'ongC. " " tái² 'tsung t'ung

Pretend

M. 假粧 chia³ chuang¹

S. " " 'ka tsaung

C. 詐 chá²

— not to know

M. 粧不知道 chuang¹ pu
chih¹ tao⁴S. " 勿曉得 tsaung 'veh
'hyau tuhC. 詐作唔識 chá² tsok.
m shik,

Pretty

M. 好看 hao³ k'an⁴S. " " 'hau k'o'en²

C. " 睇 hò 'tai

Price

M. 價錢 chia⁴ ch'ien

S. „ „ ka³ dien

C. „ „ ká² ts'in

Market —

M. 市價 shih⁴ chia⁴

S. „ „ 'z ka³

C. „ „ 'shí ká³

High —

M. 大價錢 ta⁴ chia⁴ ch'ien

S. „ „ „ doo³ ka³ dien

C. 高 „ kò ká³

What is the — ?

M. 多少錢 to¹ shao³ ch'ien²

S. 啥價 „ sa³ ka³ dien

C. 價錢幾多呢 ka³ ts'in²
 'kéi to ni

Prickly heat

M. 痲子 fei⁴-tzü

S. „ „ be³ 'ts

C. 熱癩 yit₂ fai³*

Prison

M. 監 ch'ien¹; 監牢 ch'ien¹
 lao²

S. (1) kan; (2) kan lau

C. (1) kám; (2) kám lǎo

To put in —

M. 囚起來 ch'iu² ch'i³ lai²

S. 收監 seu kan

C. 禁(入)監內 kam³(yap₂)
 kám noi²

To break prison

M. 逃監 t'ao² ch'ien¹

S. „ „ dau kan

C. „ „ t'ò kám

Private

M. 私 ssü¹

S. „ s

C. „ sz

— affairs

M. 私事 ssü¹ shih⁴

S. „ „ s z³

C. „ „ sz sz²

— secretary

M. 幕友 mu⁴ yu³; 秘書 pi⁴
 shu¹

S. (1) moo³ 'yeu; (2) pi² su

C. (1) mok₂ 'yaú; (2) péi² shü

Proceed

M. 往前走 wang³ ch'ien²
 ch'ü⁴

S. 出發 ts'eh fah; 向前
 去 hyang³ zien chi²

C. 前進 ts'in tsun²

— from

M. 出於 ch'u¹ yü; 生出
 來 shêng¹ ch'u lai

S. (1) ts'eh yui; (2) sang ts'e le

C. 發出來 fát₀ chut, loi

Promise

- M. 應許 ying¹ hsi
 S. „ „ iung² 'hyui
 C. „ 承 ying shing

To break one's —

- M. 失信 shih¹ hsin⁴
 S. „ „ seh sing²
 C. „ „ shat, sun²

Pronunciation

- M. 口音 k'ou² yin
 S. „ „ k'eu iung
 C. „ „ 'haú yam

Proof

- M. 憑據 p'ing² chü; 憑證
 p'ing² chêng⁴
 S. (1) bing kyui²; (2) bing tsung²
 C. (1) p'ang kui²

Province

- M. 省 shêng²
 S. „ 'sang
 C. „ 'sháng

Public

- M. 公 kung¹; 國家的 kuo²
 chia¹ ti
 S. „ kong; „ „ 个 kok
 kya kuh
 C. „ kung

The —

- M. 衆人 chung⁴ jên²
 S. „ „ tsong² nyung
 C. 公衆 kung chung²

Pull

- M. 拉 la¹
 S. „ 'la; 擡 chien²
 C. „ lai

To — down a house

- M. 拆房子 ch'ai¹ fang²-tzü
 S. „ „ ts'ak vaung 'ts
 C. „ 屋 ch'ák, uk,

To — out of the water

- M. 撈出水來 lao¹ ch'u¹
 shui² lai²
 S. „ „ „ „ liau ts'eh
 's le

- C. 由水掙出嚟 yau²
 'shui mang ch'ut, lai

To — out a nail

- M. 拔釘子 pa² ting¹-tzü
 S. „ „ bah ting
 C. „ „ pat² teng²

Pumelo

- M. 柚子 yu⁴-tzü
 S. „ „ yeu 'ts; 文旦
 vung tan²
 C. 波碌 po luk.

Pump

- M. 擠 (or 抽) 水筒 chi² (or
 ch'ou¹) shui² t'ung²
 S. 抽水筒 'ts'eu 's dong
 C. „ „ 器 ch'au 'shui héi²;
 軟筒 shok, t'ung²*

Punish

- M.* 責罰 tsê² fa; 治罪
chih⁴ tsui⁴
S. (1) tsak vah; (2) dz² 'dzoe
C. (1) chák_o fat₂; 罰 fat₂

Pursue

- M.* 追 chui¹
S. „ tsoe
C. „ çhui

To — closely

- M.* 趕緊 kan³ chin³
S. 追急 tsoe kyih
C. 趕緊 'kon 'kan

Push

- M.* 推 t'ui¹
S. „ t'e
C. ç't'ui

Put

- M.* 擱 ko¹; 放 fang⁴
S. „ kauh; „ faung³
C. 放 fong³; 擠 çchai

To — down

- M.* 放下 fang⁴ hsia
S. „ „ faung³ 'au
C. „ 落 fong³ lok₂; 擠落
çchai lok₂

To — on a hat

- M.* 戴帽子 tai⁴ mao⁴-tzũ
S. „ „ „ ta² mau² 'ts
C. „ „ tái² mò²*

Quarter

- M.* 四分之一 ssũ⁴ fên¹
chih i¹
S. „ „ „ „ s³ vung³
ts ih
C. „ „ „ „ sz² fan²
çhí yat,

A — of an hour

- M.* 一刻 i¹ k'o⁴
S. „ „ ih k'uh
C. „ 喲鐘 yat, kwat, chung

To give —

- M.* 赦命 shê⁴ ming⁴
S. „ „ so³ ming³
C. „ „ she³ ming³

Quick

- M.* 快 k'uai⁴
S. „ kw'a²
C. „ fái²

Quiet

- M.* 平安 p'ing² an¹; 安靜
an¹ ching⁴
S. (1) bing oen; (2) oen 'zing
C. (1) çp'ing çon; 安 çon

The town is —

- M.* 城裏平安 ch'êng² li³
p'ing² an¹
S. „ „ 安靜 dzung 'li
oen 'zing
C. „ „ 平安 çsheng⁴
çlui çp'ing çon

Be quiet*M.* 別說話 *pieh² shuo¹**hua⁴; 安靜點兒 an¹**ching⁴ tie(n)-'rh³**S.* 勿要響 *'veh iau³ 'hyang;**靜拉 'zing la³**C.* 咪嘈 *'mai ɕts'ò***Radicals (in characters)***M.* 字部 *tzü⁴ pu⁴; 部首**pu⁴ shou³**S.* (1) *z³ 'boo;* (2) *'boo 'seu**C.* (1) *tsz² pò²****Raft***M.* 筏子 *fa²-tzü³; 木排**mu⁴ p'ai³**S.* (2) *mok ba**C.* (2) *muk₂ ɕp'ai***Rails***M.* 鐵軌 *t'ieh³ kuei³**S.* " " *t'ih 'kwe**C.* " " *t'f'ò³ 'kwai***Railway***M.* 鐵路 *t'ieh³ lu⁴**S.* " " *t'ih loo³**C.* " " *t'f'ò₂ lò²; 火車路**'fo ɕh'e lò²***— station***M.* 火車站 *huo³ ch'ê¹ chan⁴**S.* " " " *'hoo ts'o dzan³**C.* " " " *頭 'fo ɕh'e**chám² ɕt'au***Rain***M.* 雨 *yü³**S.* " *'yui**C.* " *'yü***Heavy —***M.* 大雨 *ta⁴ yü³**S.* " " *doo³ 'yui**C.* " " *tái² ɕyü***It is raining***M.* 下雨 *hsia⁴ yü³**S.* 落 " *lauh 'yui**C.* " " 略 *lok₂ ɕyü lo^k***Rank***M.* 品級 *p'in³ chi³; 等 têng³**S.* (1) *'p'ing kyuh;* (2) *'tung**C.* (1) *'pan k'ap₃;* (2) *'tang***To form in —***M.* 擺陣 *pai³ chên⁴**S.* " " *ba tsung**C.* 排 " *ɕp'ai chan²***Rat***M.* 老鼠 *lao³ shu³**S.* " " *'lau ɕs (t's); 老**虫 'lau dzong**C.* 老鼠 *lò² 'shü***Rations***M.* 軍糧 *chün¹ liang²**S.* " " *kyuin liang**C.* " " *ɕkwan ɕlǝng*

Raw

- M.* 生 shêng¹
S. „ sang
C. „ sháng*

Razor

- M.* 剃頭刀 t'í⁴ t'ou² tao¹
S. „ „ „ t'í² deu tau
C. „ 刀 t'ai³ tò

Reach

- M.* 到 tao⁴
S. „ tau³
C. „ tò³

Unable to — to

- M.* 構不着 kou⁴ pu chao²
S. 撩勿 „ liau 'veh dzak
C. 唔揼得到 ɿm ò tak,
 tò³

To — out the hand

- M.* 伸手 shên¹ shou³
S. „ „ sung 'seu
C. „ „ ɿshan 'sháu

Read

- M.* 看 k'an⁴; 看書 k'an⁴
 shu¹
S. (1) k'oen³; (2) k'oen³ su
C. 睇書 t'ai³ shü

To — aloud

- M.* 念 nien⁴
S. „ nyan³
C. 讀書 tuk₂ shü

Ready

- M.* 預備好了 yü⁴ pei hao³
 lo; 齊備了 ch'i² pei⁴ lo
S. 預備好 yui³ be³ 'hau
C. 便 pín²

— money

- M.* 現錢 hsien⁴ ch'ien²
S. „ „ yien³ dien
C. „ 銀 yín² ɿngan*

— made

- M.* 現成的 hsien⁴ ch'êng² ti
S. „ „ 个 yien³ dzung kuh
C. „ „ 嘅 yín² ɿshing ke³

Real (genuine)

- M.* 真 chên¹
S. „ tsung
C. „ ɿchan

— (actual)

- M.* 實 shih²
S. „ zeh
C. „ shat₂

Rear (noun)

- M.* 後頭 hou⁴ t'ou
S. „ „ 'eu deu
C. „ 邊 hau² pín²

In the —

- M.* 在後頭 tsai⁴ hou⁴ t'ou
S. 拉 „ „ la³ 'eu deu
C. 在 „ 頭 tsoi² hau² ɿ'au

Rearguard

M. 後隊 hou⁴ tui⁴; 尾軍
wei³ chün¹

S. (1) 'eu de³

C. (1) hau² tui²

Rebel (noun)

M. 反叛 fan³ p'an⁴; 賊 tsei²

S. „ „ fan ben³; 逆賊
nyuh zuh

C. 作反嘅 tsok_o 'fán ke³;
(2) ts'ak₂ *

Rebellion

M. 反亂 fan³ luan⁴

S. „ „ fan loen³; 造反
'zau 'fan

C. 叛 „ pún² lün²

Recent

M. 新近 hsin¹ chin⁴

S. „ „ sing 'jung

C. 近時 kan² shí

Recently arrived

M. 新來的 hsin¹ lai² ti

S. „ „ 个 sing le kuh

C. 近時來嘅 kan² shi
loi ke³

Recognize

M. 認識 jên⁴ shih

S. „ „ nyung³ suh

C. „ „ ying²

Recruit

M. 新兵 hsin¹ ping¹

S. „ „ sing ping

C. „ „ san ping

Red

M. 紅 hung³

S. „ „ ong

C. „ „ hung

Reed

M. 葦子 wei³-tzu

S. 蘆葦 loo we

C. „ 荻 lo tek₂

Refuse

M. 推辭 t'ui¹ tz'ü; 不肯
pu⁴ k'ên³

S. (1) t'e³ dz; 勿肯 'veh
'k'ung

C. (1) t'ui ts'z; (2) pat, 'hang

Regiment

M. 一隊兵 i¹ tui⁴ ping¹;
營 ying²

S. (1) ih de³ ping; (2) yung

C. (1) yat, tui² ping; (2) ying

Regret

M. 後悔 hou⁴ hui³; 可惜
k'o³ hsi¹

S. (1) 'eu hwe; (2) 'k'au sih

C. (2) 'ho sik,

Regulation

M. 章程 chang¹ ch'êng

S. „ „ tsang dzung

C. „ „ chöng ch'ing

Reins

- M.* 扯手 ch'ê² shou
S. 韁繩 kyang zung
C. 馬韁 má kōng

Release

- M.* 放 fang⁴; 釋放 shih⁴
 fang⁴
S. (1) faung²; (2) suh faung²
C. (1) fong²; (2) shik, fong²

Religion

- M.* 教 chiao⁴
S. „ kyau²
C. „ káu²

The Buddhist —

- M.* 佛教 fo² chiao⁴
S. „ „ veh kyau²
C. „ „ fat₂ káu²

The Protestant —

- M.* 耶穌教 yeh³ su¹ chiao⁴
S. „ „ „ ya soo kyau²
C. „ „ „ ye sò káu²

The Roman Catholic —

- M.* 天主教 t'ien¹ chu³ chiao⁴
S. „ „ „ t'ien 'tsu kyau²
C. „ „ „ t'ín 'chü káu²

Remain (stay)

- M.* 住 chu⁴
S. „ dzu²
C. „ chü²

Remain (over)

- M.* 剩下 shêng⁴ hsiá
S. „ „ dzung² 'au
C. „ „ shing² há²

Only a few —

- M.* 剩的不多 shêng⁴ ti pu
 to¹
S. „ 得勿 „ dzung² tuh
 'veh doo²
C. 不過有些少剩倒
 pat, kwo² 'yau² se 'shú
 shing² 'tò

Remember

- M.* 記得 chi⁴ tê
S. „ „ kyí² tuh
C. „ „ kčí² tak,

I can't —

- M.* 我想不起來 wo³
 hsiang³ pu chí lai²
S. 我想勿起來 'ngoo
 'siang 'veh 'chi le
C. 記唔起嚟 kčí² m 'héi
 lai

Remove

- M.* 去 ch'ü⁴
S. 除去 dzu chí²; 移動
 yí 'dong
C. 搬 pún

To — a difficulty

- M.* 除難 ch'ü² nan²
S. „ „ dzu nan
C. „ „ ch'ui nán

To remove to another houseM. 搬家 pan¹ chia¹

S. „ „ pen kya

C. „ 屋 c₂pún uk₂**Rent (vb.)**M. 租 tsu¹; 賃 lin⁴

S. „ „ tsoo; 借 ts'ia

C. „ „ c₂tsò; (2) yam²**To — a house**M. 賃房子 lin⁴ fang²-tzǔ

S. 租 „ „ tsoo vaung-c'ts

C. „ „ 間屋 c₂tsò c₂kán uk₂**— (noun)**M. 租錢 tsu¹ ch'ien

S. „ „ tsoo dien

C. „ „ 銀 c₂tsò c₂ngan ***Repeat**M. 再說 tsai⁴ shuo¹

S. „ „ 話 tse' wo'

C. „ „ 講 tsoi' 'kong

ReplyM. 答應 ta² ying⁴; 回答
hui² ta²S. (1) tah iung²; (2) we tehC. 答 táp₀**— to a letter**M. 回信 hui² hsin⁴

S. „ „ we sing

C. „ „ c₂wúi sun'**Report (vb.)**M. 報 pao⁴; 告訴 kao⁴ su⁴S. „ „ 告 pau' kau'; (2) kau'
soo'

C. „ „ pò'

To — to a superiorM. 稟 ping³; 詳報 hsiang²
pao⁴

S. (1) 'ping; 申報 sung pau'

C. (1) 'pan

— (written statement)M. 報單 pao⁴ tan¹

S. „ „ pau' tan

C. „ „ 之章呈 pò' c₂chí
c₂chōng c₂ch'ing; (1) pò' tán**— (rumour)**M. 風聞 fēng¹ wēn²

S. „ „ fong vung

C. 謠言 yíu yin; 風聲
c₂fung c₂shing**— of a gun**M. 鎗聲 ch'iang¹ shēng¹

S. „ „ ts'iang sung

C. „ „ 响 c₂ts'ōng 'hōng**Rescue**M. 救 chiu⁴

S. „ „ kyeu'

C. „ „ kaú'

ResignM. 辭 tz'ü²

S. „ „ dz

C. „ „ 職 c₂ts'z chik,

To resign office

M. 辭官 tz'ü² kuan¹S. „ „ dz kwen; 辭職
dz tsuh

C. „ „ ʒts'z ʒkwún

To — on account of illness

M. 告病 kao⁴ ping¹S. „ „ kau³ bing³C. 因病辭職 yan peng²+
ʒts'z chik,

Resolute

M. 有志氣 yu³ chih⁴ ch'i;堅心 chien¹ hsin¹S. (1) 'yeu ts' ch'i'; (2) kyien
sing

C. (2) ʒkín ʒsam

Rest (vb.)

M. 歇 hsieh¹

S. „ „ hyih

C. „ „ hít_o

To take a little —

M. 歇一歇兒 hsieh¹ i¹
hsieh¹ 'rh

S. „ „ „ hyih ih hyih

C. „ „ „ hít_o yat, hít_o

Retreat

M. 退 t'ui⁴; 往後退 wang³
hou⁴ t'ui⁴S. (1) t'e'; 向後退 hyang²
'eu t'e'

C. (1) t'ui'

To sound the retreat

M. 吹退號 ch'ui¹ t'ui⁴ hao⁴

S. „ „ „ ts' t'e' 'au'

C. „ „ „ ʒch'ui t'ui' hò²

Return

M. 回來 hui² lai; 回去
hu² ch'ü

S. (1) we le; (2) we chi'

C. 翻嚟 fán ʒlai

To — home

M. 回家 hui² chia¹

S. „ „ we kya

C. „ „ ʒwúi ʒá

Unable to —

M. 回不來 hui² pu lai²S. 勿能回來 'veh nung
we leC. 唔翻得嚟 ʒm fán ták,
ʒlai

To — a visit

M. 回拜 hui² pai⁴

S. „ „ we pa'

C. „ „ ʒwúi pái'

Revolver

M. 手鎗 shou³ ch'iang¹

S. „ „ 'seu ts'iang

C. 對面笑 tui' mín' síu'

Reward

M. 賞 shang³; 賞賜 shang³
tz'ü⁴

S. (1) 'saung; (2) 'saung s'

C. (1) 'shöng; (2) 'shöng ts'z'

Rheumatism*M.* 風濕 fêng¹ shih¹*S.* „ „ fong seh*C.* „ „ ɕfung shap,**Rib***M.* 肋條 lei⁴ t'iao; 肋骨
lei⁴ ku³*S.* (1) luh diau; (2) luh kweh*C.* 肋 lak₂; 肋索骨 lak₂
shák₀ kwat,**Rice***M.* 米 mi³; 大米 ta⁴ mi³*S.* „ „ 'mi*C.* „ „ 'mai; (growing) 禾 ɕwo;
(unhulled) 穀 kuk,**To grow —***M.* 種稻子 chung⁴ tao⁴-tzũ*S.* „ „ 'tsong' 'dau*C.* „ „ 禾米 chung' ɕwo 'mai**Boiled —***M.* 飯 fan⁴*S.* „ „ van²*C.* „ „ fán²**— fields***M.* 稻子田 tao⁴-tzũ t'ien²*S.* „ „ 田 dau² dien*C.* 禾 „ ɕwo ɕt'ín**Rich***M.* 富 fu⁴*S.* „ „ foo²*C.* „ „ fú²**A rich man***M.* 財主 ts'ai² chu*S.* „ „ dze 'tsu*C.* „ „ ɕts'oi 'chü**To become —***M.* 發財 fa¹ ts'ai²*S.* „ „ fah dze*C.* „ „ fát₀ ɕts'oi**Ride***M.* 騎 ch'i²*S.* „ „ ji*C.* „ „ ɕk'é; 坐 ɕts'o+**Rifle***M.* 來復鎗 lai² fu ch'iang¹*S.* „ „ „ le foh ts'iang*C.* „ „ „ ɕloi fuk₂ ɕts'öng**Right (correct)***M.* 正 chêng⁴; 不錯 pu⁴ ts'o⁴*S.* „ „ tsung²; 勿 „ 'veh ts'o*C.* „ „ ching²; 着 chok₂; 啱
ngám; 有錯 ɕmò ts'o²**The — road***M.* 正道 chêng⁴ tao⁴*S.* „ „ 路 tsung² loo²*C.* „ „ ching² lò²**He is in the —***M.* 他有理 t'a¹ yu li³*S.* 伊是對个 yi 'z te' kuh*C.* 佢係合道理 ɕk'ui
hai² hop₂ tò² ɕléi

Right (hand)

- M. 右 yu⁴
 S. „ yeu²
 C. „ (手) yaú² ('shaú)

On the —

- M. 在右邊 tsai yu⁴ pien
 S. „ „ „ 'dze yeu² pien
 C. „ „ „ tsoi² yaú² pín²

Ripe

- M. 熟 shou²
 S. „ zok
 C. „ shuk₂

Rise

- M. 起來 ch'i³ lai
 S. „ „ 'chi le
 C. „ 嚟 'héi lai

To — early

- M. 起來的早 ch'i³ lai ti tsao³
 S. „ „ 得 „ chi le tuh 'tsau
 C. 清早起嚟 ts'ing 'tsò 'héi lai

The sun has risen

- M. 太陽上來了 t'ai⁴ yang shang⁴ lai lo
 S. 太陽出來哉 t'ai⁴ yang ts'eh le tse
 C. 日頭已經昇咯 yat₂ t'ai⁴ 'yí 'king shing lok_o

The wind is rising

- M. 颳起風來了 kua¹ ch'i feng¹ lai lo
 S. 發起風來哉 fah 'chi fong le tse
 C. 風起緊嚟 fung 'héi 'kan lai

River

- M. 河 ho²; 江 chiang¹
 S. „ 'oo; „ kaung
 C. „ ho; „ kong

Road

- M. 道 tao⁴; 路 lu⁴
 S. „ dau²; „ loo²
 C. (2) lò²

To take the shortest —

- M. 走近道兒 tsou³ chin⁴ tao 'rh
 S. „ „ 路 'tseu 'jung loo²
 C. 行至短路 chang ch' 'tün lò²

The — is bad

- M. 道兒不好走 tao⁴ 'rh pu hao³ tsou³
 S. 路勿好走 loo² 'veh 'hau 'tseu
 C. 個條路唔好 ko² t'fú lò² 'm 'hò

Cross-roads

- M. 十字路 shih² tzü⁴ lu⁴
 S. „ „ „ zeh z' loo²
 C. „ „ „ shap₂ tsz² lò²

Roast*M.* 燒 shao¹; 烤 k'ao³*S.* „ sau; „ 'k'au*C.* „ ,shú**Robber***M.* 賊 tsei²; 強盜 ch'iang²
tao⁴*S.* „ zuh; (2) 'jang dau³*C.* „ ts'ák₂***Rock***M.* 石頭 shih²-t'ou; 山石
shan¹ shih²*S.* (1) zak deu; (2) san zak*C.* 礮石 p'ún shek₂†**Roof***M.* 房頂 fang² ting³*S.* 屋 „ ok 'ting*C.* „ 背 uk, pui³; 瓦面
ngá mán²***Room***M.* 屋子 wu¹-tzǔ*S.* „ ok; 房 vaung*C.* 房 fong***A —***M.* 一間屋子 i¹ chien¹
wu¹-tzǔ*S.* „ „ „ ih kan ok*C.* „ „ 房 yat, kán fong***Bedroom***M.* 睡覺的屋子 shui⁴
chiao⁴ ti wu¹ tzǔ; 臥房
wo⁴ fang²*S.* (2) ngoo³ vaung*C.* 房 fong*; 瞌房 fan³
fong***Root***M.* 根子 kên¹-tzǔ; 根本
kên¹ pên³*S.* 根 kung; (2) kung 'pung*C.* „ ,kan; (2) ,kan 'pún**To — out***M.* 拔 pa²*S.* „ bah*C.* „ pat₂**Rope***M.* 繩子 shêng²-tzǔ*S.* „ zung*C.* 纜 lám²**Rotten***M.* 爛 lan⁴; 壞 huai⁴*S.* „ lan³; „ wa³*C.* 霉爛 ,múi lán²**Rough (uneven)***M.* 不平 pu⁴ p'ing²; (coarse)
粗 ts'u¹*S.* 勿平 'veh bing; (2) ts'oo*C.* (1) pat, p'ing; (2) ts'ò

The sea is rough

- M.* 海浪大 hai³ lang² ta⁴
S. „ „ „ 'he laung' doo'
C. „ „ „ 'hoi long² tái²

Round

- M.* 圓 yüan²
S. „ yoen
C. „ yün

All —

- M.* 周圍 chou¹ wei²
S. „ „ tseu we
C. „ „ 'chau¹ wai

Row (vb.)**— a boat**

- M.* 搖船 yao² ch'uan²
S. „ „ yau zen
C. 櫂 cháú²

— (noun)

- M.* 行 hang²; 溜 liú⁴
S. „ 'aung; 排 ba; 埭 da²
C. „ 'hong; 刺 lát²

A — of trees

- M.* 一行樹 i¹ hang² shu⁴
S. „ „ „ ih 'aung zu'
C. „ „ „ yat, 'hong shü²

Rub

- M.* 擦 ts'a¹; 磨 mo²
S. „ ts'ah; „ moo
C. „ ts'át.

Rudder

- M.* 船舵 ch'uan² to⁴
S. „ „ zen 'doo
C. „ 艫 shün 't'ai

Ruins**A house in —**

- M.* 破房 p'o⁴ fang²
S. „ „ p'oo² vaung
C. 傾倒嘅屋 k'ing 'tò
 ke² uk,

A city in —

- M.* 毀敗的城 hui³ pai⁴ ti
 ch'êng³
S. 敗壞个 „ ba' wa' kuh
 dzung
C. 蹂躪嘅 „ 'yau¹ 'lán
 ke² 'sheng†

Run

- M.* 跑 p'ao³
S. „ bau
C. 走 'tsau

Unable to —

- M.* 跑不動 p'ao³ pu tung⁴
S. „ 勿 „ bau 'veh 'dong
C. 唔走得 m 'tsau tak,

To — away

- M.* 逃跑 t'ao² p'ao³
S. „ „ dau bau
C. 走去 'tsau hui²; 踢 tek.†

Rush

- M.* 闖 ch'uang⁴
S. „ ts'aung³; 衝 ts'ong
C. „ 'ch'ong; 冲突 ch'ung
 tat₂

To — forward

- M.* 往前闖 wang³ ch'ien²
 ch'uang⁴
S. 向 „ 衝 hyang³ zien
 ts'ong
C. 闖前 'ch'ong t's'in

To — in

- M.* 闖進 ch'uang⁴ chin⁴
S. 衝 „ 去 ts'ong t'ing³ chi²
C. 闖 „ 'ch'ong tsun³

Russia

- M.* 俄國 o⁴ kuo
S. „ „ ngoo kok
C. „ „ ngo² kwok₀

Rut

- M.* 車轍 ch'é¹ ch'é²; 車印
 兒 ch'é¹ yi(n)⁴ 'rh
S. 車跡 ts'o tsih; 車印子
 ts'o iung³-ts
C. (1) ch'e ch'ft₀

Sack

- M.* 口袋 k'ou³ tai⁴
S. 袋 de³
C. „ toi²*

Sad

- M.* 憂愁 yu¹ ch'ou; 憂悶
 yu¹ mén⁴
S. (1) ieu dzeu; (2) ieu mung³
C. (1) yau¹ shaú; 閉翳 pai²
 ai²

Saddle

- M.* 鞍子 an¹-tzü
S. „ „ oen 'ts
C. 馬鞍 'ma¹ on

To — a horse

- M.* 鞍馬 pei⁴ ma³
S. 裝 „ tsaung 'mo
C. 以鞍配馬 'yí on p'ui³
 'ma

Safe

- M.* 妥當 t'o³ tang; 穩當
 wên³ tang
S. (1) 't'oo taung³; (2) 'wung
 taung³
C. (1) 't'o tong³

Sailor

- M.* 水手 shui³ shou³
S. „ „ 's 'seu
C. „ „ 'shui 'shaú

Sails

- M.* 船篷 ch'uan² p'êng²; 帆
 fan¹
S. (1) zen bong
C. 帆 léi

To hoist sail

- M. 拉起篷來 *la¹ ch¹i*
 p'êng² lai; 扯篷 *ch'ê³*
 p'êng²
 S. (1) 'la 'chi bong le; (2) 'ts'a
 bong
 C. 扯(高 *or* 起 *or* 上) 幄
 ch'ê (*kò* *or* *héi* *or*
 shōng) *léi*

To take in —

- M. 落篷 *lo⁴ p'êng²*
 S. „ „ *lauh bong*
 C. „ 幄 *lok₂ léi*

Sale

- M. 賣 *mai⁴*
 S. „ *ma³*
 C. 出賣 *ch'ut, mái²*

To have for —

- M. 發賣 *fa¹ mai⁴*
 S. „ „ *fah ma³*
 C. „ „ *fát, mai²*

Salt

- M. 鹽 *yen²*
 S. „ *yien*
 C. „ *yím*

— fish

- M. 鹹魚 *hsien² yü²*
 S. „ „ *'an ng*
 C. „ „ *hám yü**

Salute

- M. 拜 *pai⁴*; 行禮 *hsing² li³*
 S. „ *pa³*; „ „ *'ang 'li*
 C. „ *pái³*; „ „ *hang² lai*;
 請安 *ts'ing an*

Same

- M. 一樣的 *i¹ yang⁴ ti*;
 相同 *hsiang¹ t'ung²*
 S. 一樣 *ih yang²*; (2) *siang*
 dong

- C. „ „ *yat, yōng²*

Of the — age

- M. 同年 *t'ung² nien²*
 S. „ „ *dong nyien*
 C. „ „ *t'ung nín*

From the — place

- M. 同鄉 *t'ung² hsiang¹*
 S. „ „ *dong hyang*
 C. „ „ *t'ung hōng*

Sand

- M. 沙 *sha¹*
 S. „ *so*
 C. „ *shá*

Sand-bank

- M. 沙灘 *sha¹ t'an¹*
 S. „ „ *so t'an*
 C. „ „ *shá t'an*

Saturday

- M. 禮拜六 *li³ pai⁴ liu⁴*
 S. „ „ „ *'li pa³ lok*
 C. „ „ „ *lai pái³ luk₂*

To scatter in flight

- M.* 逃散了 t'ao² san⁴ lo
S. „ „ dau san²
C. „ 走散曉 t'ò 'tsau
 san³ h'ú

School

- M.* 學房 hsüeh² fang²
S. „ 堂 'auh daung
C. 書館 shü 'kwún

To go to —

- M.* 上學 shang⁴ hsüeh²
S. „ „ 'zaung 'auh
C. „ „ 'shöng hok₂

— boy

- M.* 學生 hsüeh² shêng¹
S. „ „ 'auh sang
C. „ „ hok₂ sháng†

— master

- M.* 先生 hsien¹ shêng¹; 教
 習 chiao⁴ hsi
S. (1) sien sang; 教師 kyau³ s
C. (1) sín sháng†

Scissors

- M.* 剪子 chien³ tzü
S. „ 刀 'tsien tau
C. 鉸剪 káu³ 'tsín

Sea

- M.* 海 hai³
S. „ 'he
C. „ 'hoi

Seaside

- M.* 海邊 hai³ pien¹
S. „ „ 'he pien
C. „ „ 'hoi pín

— going junks

- M.* 走海的船 tsou³ hai³
 ti ch'uan²
S. 海船 'he zen
C. 出大海嘅船 ch'ut,
 tái² 'hoi ke' gshün

To put to —

- M.* 出海 ch'u¹ hai³
S. „ 洋 ts'eh yang
C. „ 海 ch'ut, 'hoi; 出大
 洋 ch'ut, tái² yöng

— sick

- M.* 暈船 yün⁴ ch'uan²
S. „ „ yuin² zen
C. „ 浪 wan² long²

Seal (noun)

- M.* 印 yin⁴
S. „ iung²
C. „ yan²

— (vb.)

- M.* 打印 ta³ yin
S. „ „ 'tang iung²
C. „ „ 'tá yan²

To — up

- M.* 封 fêng¹
S. „ fong
C. „ fung

Season

M. 季 chi⁴; 時令 shih² ling⁴S. „, kyi³; „, „ z-ling³C. „, kwai³; 天時 t'in² shí

The four seasons

M. 四季 ssü⁴ chi⁴S. „, „ s³ kyi³C. „, „ sz³ kwai³

Second

M. 第二 ti⁴ êrh⁴S. „, „ di nyi³C. „, „ tai² yf²

Secret

M. 密 mi⁴; 機密 chi¹ mi⁴S. 秘密 pi³ mihC. (1) mat₂; (2) k'ei mat₂

— society

M. 私會 ssü¹ hui⁴S. „, „ s we³C. „, „ c'sz wú²

In —

M. 密密的 mi⁴ mi⁴ tiS. 偷伴子 t'eu ben³ 'ts

C. 私間 sz kán

A —

M. 密事 mi⁴ shih⁴S. 秘密事 pi³ mih z³C. 密事 mat₂ sz²

Secure

M. 妥當 t'o³ tang⁴; 安穩 an¹ wên³S. (1) 't'oo taung³; (2) oen wungC. (1) t'o tong²

See

M. 看見 k'an⁴ chien⁴S. „, „ k'oen³ kyien³C. 見 kín²

Unable to —

M. 看不見 k'an⁴ pu⁴ chien⁴S. „, „ k'oen³ veh kyien³C. 唔見得 ɿm kín² tak,

Did you — ?

M. 瞧見麼 ch'iao² chien⁴ moS. 看 „ 否 k'oen³ kyien³ va³C. 你 „ 唔見呢 ɿnéi kín² ɿni

To — through (a plan)

M. 看破 k'an⁴ p'o⁴S. „, „ k'oen³ p'oo³C. „, „ hon³ p'o³

Seed

M. 種子 chung³ tzü

S. „, „ 'tsong-'ts; 種 'tsong

C. „, 'chung

Seek

M. 找 chao³; 尋 hsün²

S. (2) zing

C. 搵 wan

Seize

M. 拏 ^{na²}; 捉拏 ^{cho¹ na²}

S. (1) nau; (2) tsauh nau

C. 拉 ^{lái}; 捉 ^{chuk}.

To — territory

M. 佔地 ^{chan⁴ ti⁴}

S. „ „ ^{tsien³ di³}

C. „ „ ^{chám³ téi}

Self

M. 自己 ^{tzǔ⁴ chi}

S. „ 家 ^{z² ka}

C. „ 己 ^{tsz² k'ei}

Sell

M. 賣 ^{mai⁴}

S. „ ^{ma³}

C. „ ^{mái²}

Unable to —

M. 賣不了 ^{mai⁴ pu liao³}

S. „ 勿落 ^{ma³ 'veh lauh}

C. 唔賣得 ^{ɛm mái² tak₂}

To — by auction

M. 拍賣 ^{p'ai¹ mai⁴}

S. „ „ ^{p'ak ma³}

C. 喊夜冷 ^{hám³ ye² lán}

Send

M. 打發去 ^{ta³ fa ch'ü⁴};
發 ^{fa¹}

S. (1) tang fah chi³; 發出
fah ts'eh; 差 ^{ts'a}

C. 打發 ^{tá fat}; 寄 ^{kéi³}; 附
^{fú²}

To send presents

M. 送禮 ^{sung⁴ li³}

S. „ „ ^{song³ 'li}

C. „ „ ^{sung³ lai}

To — troops

M. 派兵 ^{p'ai⁴ ping¹}

S. „ „ ^{p'a² ping}

C. „ „ ^{p'ai³ ping}

Sentence (noun)

M. 一句 ^{i¹ chü⁴}; 一句話
^{i¹ chü⁴ hua⁴}

S. (1) ih kyui³; (2) ih kyui³ wo³

C. (1) yat, kui³; (2) yat, kui³
^{wá²*}

— (vb.)

M. 定罪 ^{ting⁴ tsui⁴}

S. „ „ ^{ding³ 'dzoe}

C. 辦 ^{pán²}; 半斷 ^{p'un³ tün³}

— to death

M. 定死罪 ^{ting⁴ ssü³ tsui⁴}

S. „ „ „ ^{ding³ 'si 'dzoe}

C. „ „ „ ^{ting² 'sz tsui²}

Sentry

M. 看守的兵 ^{k'an⁴ shou³}
^{ti ping¹}

S. 守衛兵 ^{'seu we³ ping}

C. 防兵 ^{fong ping}; 哨兵
^{sháu³ ping}

Separate

M. 分開 fên¹ k'ai¹

S. „ „ fung k'e

C. „ „ fan hoi

— (intrans.)

M. 離開 li² k'ai¹

S. „ „ li k'e

C. „ „ léi hoi

Separated by a river

M. 隔着一道河 ko² cho
i¹ tao⁴ ho²S. 隔開一條河 kak k'e
ih diau 'ooC. 有條河隔開 'yaú
t'úú ho kák_o hoi

September

M. 九月 chiu³ yüeh⁴

S. „ „ 'kyeu nyoeh

C. 英九月 ying 'kau yüt₂

Serious

M. 重大 chung⁴ ta⁴S. „ „ 'dzong da²C. 關係 kwán hai²

A — matter

M. 大事 ta⁴ shih⁴S. „ „ da² z²C. 重 „ chung² sz²; 重大
之事 chung² tái² chi sz²

A serious illness

M. 重病 chung⁴ ping⁴S. „ „ 'dzong bing²C. „ „ chung² peng²+

Servant

M. 使喚人 shih³ huan jên²;底下人 ti³ hsia jên²;跟班的 kên¹ pan¹-tiS. 用人 yong² nyung; 跟
班 kung pan; (2) 'ti 'au
'nyung

C. (1) 'shai fún' gyan

Female —

M. 丫頭 ya¹ t'ou²S. „ „ au deu; 女用
人 'nyui yong² nyungC. 丫頭 á t'áu; 使媽
'shai má

Serve

M. 服侍 fu² shih; 伺候
tz'ü⁴ houS. (1) vok z²; (2) 'z 'eu²C. 服事 fuk₂ sz²

To — as a soldier

M. 當兵 tang¹ ping¹S. „ „ taung² ping

C. „ „ tong ping

Settle

M. 定規 ting⁴ kueiS. „ „ ding² kweC. „ „ ting²

To settle the price

- M.* 定價錢 ting⁴ chia⁴
ch'ien
S. „ „ „ ding² ka³
dien
C. „ „ „ ting² ká² •
t's'ín

—— (intrans.)

- M.* 落住 lo⁴ chu⁴
S. 定 „ ding² dzu³
C. „ „ ting² chü²

Settlement (foreign)

- M.* 租界 tsu¹ chieh
S. „ „ tsoo ka³
C. „ „ t'sò kài³

Seven

- M.* 七 ch'i¹
S. „ „ ts'ih
C. „ „ ts'at,

Sew

- M.* 縫 fêng²
S. „ „ vong
C. 聯 lün

Shade**In the ——**

- M.* 在陰涼兒裏 tsai⁴
yin¹ liang² 'rh li
S. 拉陰地 la² iung di³
C. 在於遮陰之中 tsoi²
yü che yam chí chung

Shake

- M.* 搖晃 yao² huang; 搖動 yao² tung⁴
S. (1) yau hwaung; (2) yau⁴
dong
C. 郁 yuk; (2) yú tung²

To —— the head

- M.* 搖頭 yao² t'ou²
S. „ „ yau deu
C. 擰 „ ning² t'áu

To —— clothes

- M.* 抖擻衣裳 tou³ lou i¹
shang
S. „ 衣裳 t'eu i-zaung
C. 挾 „ 服 'yöng yí fuk₂

Shallow

- M.* 淺 ch'ien³
S. „ „ ts'ien
C. „ „ ts'ín

Sharp

- M.* 快 k'uai⁴
S. „ „ kw'a²
C. 利 léi²

Shave

- M.* 刮 kua¹
S. 剃 t'i³
C. „ „ t'ai³

—— the head

- M.* 剃頭 t'i⁴ t'ou²
S. „ „ t'i³ deu
C. „ „ t'ai³ t'áu

Shave the face

- M. 刮臉 kua¹ lien³
 S. „ 面孔 kwa mien³ k'ong
 C. 剃鬚 t'ai² sò

She

- M. 他 t'a¹
 S. 伊 yi
 C. 佢 k'ui

Sheep

- M. 羊 yang²
 S. „ yang
 C. 綿羊 mín yōng; 羊咩 yōng me

Sheet

- M. 被禪子 pei⁴ tan¹ tzü
 S. „ 單 'bi tan
 C. „ „ 'p'éi tán
A — of paper
 M. 一張紙 i¹ chang¹ chih³
 S. „ „ „ ih tsang 'ts
 C. „ „ „ yat, chōng 'chí

Shell

- M. 皮兒 p'i² 'rh; 殼 k'o²
 S. „ bi; (2) k'auh
 C. (2) hok_o

Sea —

- M. 海螺 hai³ lo²
 S. „ „ 'he loo
 C. „ „ 'hoi lo

Shell (for cannon)

- M. 砲子兒 p'ao⁴ tzü³ 'rh
 S. „ 彈 p'au² dan
 C. „ 碼 p'áu² 'má

Shine

- M. 發光 fa¹ kuang¹
 S. „ „ fah kwaung
 C. „ „ fát_o kwong

The sun shines

- M. 太陽曬 t'ai⁴ yang shai⁴
 S. 日頭亮 nyih deu liang²
 C. 熱 „ 曬 yít₂ t'áu^{*} shái²

To make — (by rubbing)

- M. 磨光了 mo² kuang¹ lo
 S. „ „ moo kwaung
 C. „ „ mo kwong

Ship

- M. 船 ch'uan²
 S. „ zen
 C. „ shün

War —

- M. 兵船 ping¹ ch'uan²; 軍艦 chün¹ hsien⁴
 S. (1) ping zen; (2) kyuin chien
 C. (1) ping shün; 戰艦 chin² lám²

Shirt

- M. 汗衫 han⁴ shan¹
 S. „ „ 'oen² san
 C. „ „ hon² shám

Shoe

M. 鞋 hsieh²

S. „ 子 ‘a-‘ts

C. „ 鞋 hái

A pair of shoes

M. — 雙鞋 i¹ shuang¹ hsieh²

S. „ „ „ 子 ih saung
‘a-‘ts

C. „ 對 „ yat, tui³ hái

Sole of a —

M. 鞋底子 hsieh² ti³-tzü

S. „ „ ‘a ‘ti

C. „ „ 鞋底 ‘tai

To put on one's shoes

M. 穿鞋 ch‘uan¹ hsieh²

S. 着 „ 子 tsak ‘a-‘ts

C. „ „ chök_o hái

To take off one's shoes

M. 脫鞋 t‘o¹ hsieh²

S. „ „ 子 t‘oeh ‘a-‘ts

C. „ „ t‘üt_o hái

Horse —

M. 馬掌 ma³ chang³

S. „ 腳鐵 mo kyak t‘ih

C. „ 夾 ‘má káp_o

Shoot (artillery)

M. 放砲 fang⁴ p‘ao⁴

S. „ „ faung³ p‘au³

C. „ „ fong³ p‘áu³

Shoot (rifle)

M. 放鎗 fang⁴ ch‘iang¹

S. „ „ faung³ ts‘iang

C. „ „ fong³ ts‘öng

Shop

M. 舖子 p‘u⁴ tzü

S. 店 tien³; 店舖 tien³ p‘oo³

C. 舖頭 p‘ò³ t‘áu³*

Shore

M. 岸 an⁴; 沿 yen²

S. „ ngoen³; (2) yien

C. „ ngon²

To go on —

M. 上岸 shang⁴ an⁴

S. „ „ ‘zaung ngoen³

C. „ „ ‘shöng ngon²; 埋
街 ‘mái kái

Short

M. 短 tuan³

S. „ ‘toen

C. „ ‘tün

A — cut

M. 近道兒 chin⁴ tao⁴ ‘rh

S. „ 路 ‘jung lóo³

C. 一條短路 yat, t‘íu³
‘tün lò²

Shot

M. 彈子 tan⁴ tzü

S. „ „ dan³-‘ts

C. „ „ tán³ ‘tsz; 炮碼
p‘áu³ ‘má

Shot, small*M.* 沙子 sha¹ tzǔ*S.* „ „ so-^cts*C.* „ „ shá**Shoulder***M.* 膀子 pang³ tzǔ; 肩膀
兒 chien¹ pang³ 'rh*S.* 肩膀 kyien paung; 肩
胛 kyien ka*C.* 膊頭 pok_o t'áu***To carry on the —***M.* 扛 k'ang²*S.* 捐 jien*C.* 托 t'ok_o**Shout***M.* 大聲叫喊 ta⁴ shēng¹
chiao⁴ han³*S.* 喊 han²; 叫喊 kyau³ han³*C.* 喝 hot_o**Show***M.* 指 chih³; 顯 hsien³*S.* (1) ts³; (2) 'hyien; 表明
'piau ming*C.* (1) 'chí; (2) 'hín; 指出
'chí ch'ut,**To — one's skill***M.* 顯手段 hsien³ shou³
tuan⁴*S.* „ 本事 'hyien 'pung z'*C.* „ 手段 'hín 'shau tün²**To show him the way to
Peking***M.* 指給他上京的道
chih³ kei³ t'a shang⁴ ching¹
ti tao⁴*S.* 指點伊進京个路
ts' 'tien yi tsing³ kyung kuh
loo*C.* 指示佢上京個條
路 'chí shí² 'k'ui 'shōng
'king ko' t'fu lò²**Show it to me***M.* 給我看 kei³ wo³ k'an⁴*S.* 撥 „ „ peh'ngoo k'o'en³*C.* 俾 „ 睇 'péi 'ngo t'ai**Shrapnel***M.* 石榴子彈 shih²-liu²
tzǔ tan⁴*S.* „ „ „ zak-lieu 'ts
dan²*C.* 開花彈 hoi fá tán²;
榴霰彈 'lau sín³ tán²**Shut***M.* 關 kuan¹; 閉 pi⁴*S.* „ kwan; „ pi³*C.* 門 'shán**— the window***M.* 關窗戶 kuan¹ ch'uang¹
hu⁴*S.* „ „ kwan ts'aung*C.* 門 „ 門 'shán 'ch'ōng
'mún

Shut the box

M. 蓋上箱子 kai⁴ shang⁴
hsiang¹-tzü

S. " " " " ke² 'zaung
siang-'ts

C. 門埋個箱 shán² mái²
ko² sōng

— the eyes

M. 閉眼睛 pi⁴ yen³-ching

S. " ; " pi⁴ 'ngan-tsing

C. 合埋眼 hop² mái² 'ngán

Sick

M. 有病 yu³ ping⁴; 病了
ping⁴ lo

S. (1) 'yeu bing²; 病 bing²

C. 病 peng²†

Side

M. 邊 pien¹; 旁邊 p'ang²
pien¹

S. (1) pien; (2) baung pien

C. (1) pín; (2) p'ong pín

— by —

M. 挨肩 ai¹ chien¹

S. 並排 bing² ba

C. " 肩 ping² kín

On all sides

M. 四下裏 ssü⁴ hsia⁴ li

S. " " s² 'au

C. 周圍 chau² wai

This side of the mountain

M. 山這邊 shan¹ ché⁴ pien

S. " 个第邊 san kuh di²
pien

C. " 呢邊 shán² ni² pín

Sight

M. 眼力 yen³ li⁴

S. " " 'ngan lih

C. " " 'ngán lik²

Short —

M. 近視眼 chin⁴ shih yen³

S. " " " 'jung z² 'ngan

C. " " " kan² shí² 'ngán

— of a gun

M. 星斗 hsing¹ tou³; 苗頭
miao² t'ou³

S. 照星 tsau² sing

C. (2) míu² t'au²

Signal

M. 號 hao⁴; (flag) 號旗 hao⁴
ch'í³

S. (1) 'au³; (flag) (2) 'au³ 'ji

C. (1) hò²; (flag) (2) hò² k'úi

To make a —

M. 打號旗 ta³ hao⁴ ch'í³

S. " " " 'tang 'au³ 'ji

C. " " " 'tá hò² k'úi

Silence (keep)

M. 不說話 pu⁴ shuo¹ hua⁴

S. 勿響 'veh 'hyang; 勿說
話 veh soeh wo²

C. 咪出聲 'mai ch'ut,
sheng²†

Silent

M. 靜靜 ching⁴ ching⁴; 靜密 ching⁴ mi⁴

S. (1) 'zing 'zing; 默默 muh muh

C. (1) tsing² tsing²*

Silver

M. 銀子 yin²-tzü

S. „ „ nyung-'ts

C. „ „ ngan*

Simple

M. (man) 樸實 p'u² shih;
(dress) 樸素 p'u² su

S. (man) (1) p'ok seh; (dress)
(2) p'ok soo²

C. (man) (1) p'ok_o shat₂; (dress)
素裝 sò' 'chong

Since

M. 自從 tzü⁴ ts'ung

S. „ „ z' dzong

C. „ „ tsz² 'ts'ung

—— last year

M. 自去年以來 tzü⁴
ch'ü⁴ nien² i³ lai²

S. 從舊年 dzong jeu³ nyien

C. 自從舊年以後 tsz²
'ts'ung kau² 'nín 'yí 'hau²

—— (seeing that)

M. 既 chi⁴; 既然 chi⁴ jan²

S. „ kyí; „ „ kyí zen

C. „ ke³; „ „ ke³ yín

Sing

M. 唱 ch'ang⁴

S. „ ts'aung²

C. „ ch'öng²

Single

M. 單 tan¹; 獨 tu²

S. „ tan; „ dok

C. „ 'tán; „ tuk₂

Sink

M. 沉 ch'ên²; 沉下 ch'ên²
hsia

S. „ dzung; (2) dzung 'au

C. „ 'ch'am

To — a ship

M. 沉船 ch'ên² ch'uan²

S. „ „ dzung zen

C. „ „ 'ch'am 'shün

Sister (elder)

M. 姐姐 chieh³ chieh

S. 阿姊 ah 'tsi

C. 亞姐 á' 'tse

—— (younger)

M. 妹妹 mei⁴ mei

S. „ „ me³ me³

C. 亞 „ á' mui²*

Sit

M. 坐 tso⁴; 坐下 tso⁴ hsia

S. „ 'zoo; „ „ 'zoo 'au

C. „ 'ts'ot

Six

- M. 六 liu⁴
 S. „ lok
 C. „ luk₂

Size

- M. 大小 ta⁴ hsiao³
 S. „ „ doo³ 'siau
 C. „ 細 tái² sai³

What is the — of this house?

- M. 這個房子有多大
 chē⁴ ko fang²-tzu³ yu³ to¹
 ta⁴
 S. 第个屋有咁大小
 di³ kuh ok 'yeu sa' doo'
 'siau
 C. 呢間屋有幾大 ni
 kan uk, 'yaú 'kéi tái²?

Skilful

- M. 有本事 yu³ pēn³ shih⁴;
 有能幹 yu³ nēng²
 kan⁴
 S. (1) 'yeu 'pung z²; (2) 'yeu
 nung koen²
 C. 好本事 hò 'pún sz²

A — workman

- M. 巧手 ch'iao³ shou³
 S. „ „ 'chau 'seu
 C. „ „ 'haú 'sháu

Skin

- M. 皮 p'i²
 S. „ bi
 C. „ p'ei

Skin, to

- M. 剥皮 pao¹ p'i²
 S. „ „ pok bi
 C. „ „ mok, p'ei

Slaughter

- M. 殺 sha¹; (cattle) 宰 tsai³
 S. „ sah; „ „ 'tse
 C. „ shát₀; „ 割 t'ong

Sleep

- M. 睡 shui⁴; 睡覺 shui⁴
 chiao⁴
 S. 睏 kw'ung²; 睏覺 kw'ung²
 kau³
 C. (1) shui²; 瞌 fan³

Unable to —

- M. 睡不着覺 shui⁴ pu⁴
 chao² chiao⁴
 S. 睏勿著 kw'ung² 'veh dzak
 C. 唔瞌得 m fan³ tak,

Sleeve

- M. 袖子 hsiu⁴ tzū
 S. „ „ zieu³-ts
 C. „ tsau²

Slip (vb.)

- M. 失脚 shih¹ chiao³; 跌
 倒 tieh¹ tao³; 滑 hua²
 S. (1) sek kyak; (2) tih 'tau;
 (3) wah
 C. (1) shat, kōk₀; 蹣 shín²

I slipped and fell

M. 我滑倒了 *wo*³ *hua*²
*tao*³ *lo*

S. „ „ „ „ *‘ngoo wah*
‘tau liau

C. „ 蹣脚踏倒 *‘ngo*
*shin*³ *kök*₀ *tít*₀ *‘id*

Slow

M. 慢 *man*⁴

S. „ *man*³

C. „ *mán*²

Small

M. 小 *hsiao*³

S. „ *‘siau*

C. 細 *sai*²

Small-pox

M. 痘子 *tou*⁴ *tzü*; 天花
*t’ien*¹ *hua*¹

S. (1) *deu*²-*‘ts*; (2) *t’ien hwo*

C. 天花痘 *t’ín fá tau*²*

To have —

M. 出花兒 *ch*^{‘u}¹ *hua*¹ *‘rh*

S. „ „ *ts’eh hwo*

C. „ 痘 *ch*^{‘ut}, *tau*²*

Smell (noun)

M. 氣味 *ch*^{‘i}⁴ *wei*

S. „ „ *chí*³ *mí*²

C. „ „ *hí*² *mé*²

Smoke (noun)

M. 煙 *yen*¹

S. „ *ien*

C. „ *yín*

To smoke tobacco

M. 吃煙 *ch*^{‘ih}¹ *yen*¹

S. „ „ *chuh ien*

C. 食烟 *shik*₂ *yín*

Smooth

M. 平 *p*^{‘ing}²; 光 *kuang*

S. „ *bing*; „ *kwaung*

C. „ 滑 *p*^{‘ing} *wát*₂

Snow

M. 雪 *hsüeh*³

S. „ *sih*

C. „ *süt*₀

To —

M. 下雪 *hsia*⁴ *hsüeh*³

S. 落 „ *lauh sih*

C. „ „ *lok*₂ *süt*₀

Soap

M. 胰子 *i*² *tzü*

S. 肥皂 *bi zau*²

C. 洋靚 *yöng* *‘kán*

Soda-water

M. 荷蘭水 *ho*² *lan*² *shui*³;

氣水 *ch*^{‘i}⁴ *shui*³

S. (1) *‘oo lan* *‘s*; (2) *chi* *‘s*

C. (1) *‘ho* *‘lán* *‘shui*

Soft

M. 軟 *juan*³

S. „ *‘nyoen*

C. 脰 *nam*; 軟 *‘yün*

Soldier*M.* 兵 ping¹*S.* „ ping*C.* „ ping**Sometimes***M.* 有時候 yu³ shih² hou⁴*S.* „ „ 'yeu z-'eu³*C.* „ „ 'yaú shí**Somewhere***M.* 不定何處 pu⁴ ting⁴
ho² ch'u⁴*S.* 某地方 'meu di³ faung*C.* 不定何處 pat, ting², ho
ch'ü³**To go — else***M.* 往別處去 wang³ pieh³
ch'u⁴ ch'ü⁴*S.* 到 „ 地方去 tau³ bih
di³ faung chi³*C.* 去 „ 處 hui³ pft² ch'ü³**Son***M.* 兒子 êrh² tzü*S.* „ „ 'eu-'ts*C.* 仔 'tsai**Song***M.* 曲兒 ch'ü³ 'rh; 歌 ko¹*S.* „ 子 chok-'ts; „ koo*C.* 歌仔 ko 'tsai**Soon***M.* 快 k'uai⁴; 早 tsao³*S.* „ kw'a³; „ 'tsau*C.* 有幾耐 'mò 'kéi noi²*;歇有耐 hft. 'mò noi²***A little sooner***M.* 早點兒 tsao³ tie(n)³ 'rh*S.* „ 一點 'tsau ih 'tien*C.* „ 的咁多 'tsò tsk,
kom³ 'to**As — as he saw me***M.* 他一見了我 t'a¹ i¹
chien⁴ lo wo³*S.* 伊一看見我 yi ih
k'oen³ kyien³ 'ngoo*C.* 佢一見我 'k'ui yat,
kín³ 'ngo**Sound***M.* 聲 shêng¹*S.* „ sung*C.* „ sheng⁺**— (of a word)***M.* 音 yin¹*S.* „ iung*C.* „ yam**Soup***M.* 湯 t'ang¹*S.* „ t'aung*C.* „ t'ong**Sour***M.* 酸 suan¹*S.* „ soen*C.* „ sün

South*M.* 南 nan²*S.* „ nen*C.* „ 𠵿nám**Spade***M.* 鏟 ch'an³*S.* „ 'ts'an*C.* „ 'ch'án**Spark***M.* 火星兒 huo³ hsing¹ 'rh*S.* „ „ 'hoo sing*C.* „ „ 'fo 𠵿sing**Speak***M.* 說話 shuo¹ hua⁴*S.* „ „ soeh wo³*C.* 講說話 'kong shüt, wá²**To — to him***M.* 和他說話 ho² t'a¹ shuo¹ hua⁴*S.* 同伊 „ „ dong yi soeh wo³*C.* 對佢講 tui³ 'k'ui 'kong**To — Chinese***M.* 說中國話 shuo¹ chung¹ kuo hua⁴*S.* „ „ „ soeh tsong 𠵿k wo³*C.* 講唐話 'kong 𠵿t'ong wá²***Specially***M.* 特意的 t'ê⁴ i⁴ ti; 專 chuan¹*S.* 特意个 duh i³ kuh; (2) tsen*C.* „ 登 tak² 𠵿tang; (2) 𠵿chün**Speed***M.* 快慢 k'uai⁴ man⁴*S.* „ „ kw'a³ man³*C.* „ „ fái³ mán²**Spend***M.* 費用 fei⁴ yung⁴; 費 fei⁴; 花錢 hua¹ ch'ien²*S.* (1) fi³ yong³; (2) fi³; (3) hwo dien*C.* (1) fai³ yung²; (2) fai³; 使 'shai**Spirits (liquor)***M.* 火酒 huo³ chiu³*S.* „ „ 'hoo 'tsieu*C.* 燒 „ 𠵿shíú 'tsaú**In good —***M.* 精神好 ching¹ shên hao³*S.* 神氣 „ zung chi³ 'hau*C.* 精神 „ 𠵿tsing 𠵿shan 'hò**Spoon***M.* 杓子 shao² tzŭ*S.* 抄 ts'au*C.* 匙羹 𠵿shí 𠵿kang**Tea —***M.* 匙子 ch'ih² tzŭ*S.* 茶匙 dzo z*C.* „ 羹 𠵿ch'á 𠵿kang

Spring (season)*M.* 春天 *ch'un¹ t'ien¹**S.* „ „ *ts'ung t'ien**C.* „ „ *ch'un t'in*

— (watch)

M. 發條 *fa¹ t'iao²**S.* „ „ *fah diau**C.* „ „ *fát_o t'íú*

— (vb.)

M. 跳 *t'iao⁴**S.* „ „ *t'iau²**C.* „ „ *t'íú²***Spur***M.* 馬扎子 *ma³ cha²-tzü**S.* 策馬距 *ts'uh 'mo jui²**C.* 刺 „ „ *ts'z' má₂ k'ui***Spy (noun)***M.* 奸細 *chien¹ hsi*; 探子 *t'an⁴-tzü**S.* (1) *kan si²*; (2) *t'en²-ts**C.* (2) *t'ám² 'tsz***Squadron (of cavalry)***M.* 一起 (or 一隊) 馬兵 *i¹ ch'i³ (or i¹ tui⁴) ma³ ping¹**S.* 一起 (or 一隊) 馬兵 *ih 'chi (or ih de²) 'mo ping**C.* 騎兵中隊 *k'e ping chung tui²***Squadron (of ships)***M.* 一幫船 *i¹ pang¹ ch'uan²**S.* „ „ „ *ih baung zen**C.* „ „ „ *yat, pong shün²***Squall***M.* 一陣風 *i¹ chên⁴ fêng¹**S.* „ „ „ *ih dzung² fong**C.* „ „ „ 雨 *yat, chan² fung² yü***Square***M.* 四方的 *ssü⁴ fang¹ ti**S.* „ „ 个 *s² faung kuh**C.* „ „ *sz² fong***Three feet —***M.* 三尺見方 *san¹ ch'ih³ chien⁴ fang¹**S.* „ „ „ „ *san ts'ak kyien² faung**C.* „ „ 方 *sám ch'ek_o fong***Stable***M.* 馬棚 *ma³ p'êng²**S.* „ „ *'mo bang**C.* „ 房 *má₂ fong²***Stair***M.* 梯子 *t'i¹-tzü*; 樓梯 *lou²**S.* (2) *leu t'i*; 梯 *t'i**C.* (2) *lau t'ai***Upstairs***M.* 樓上 *lou² shang**S.* „ „ *leu 'laung**C.* „ „ *lau shōng²*

Stand*M.* 站 chan⁴*S.* 立 lih*C.* 企 ɿk'ei**To — up***M.* 站起來 chan⁴ ch'i lai;立起來 li⁴ ch'i lai*S.* (2) lih 'chi le*C.* 企起嚟 ɿk'ei 'héi ɿlai**Star***M.* 星 hsing¹*S.* „ sing*C.* „ ɿsing**Pole —***M.* 北斗星 pei³ tou³ hsing¹*S.* „ „ „ pok 'teu sing*C.* „ „ „ pak, 'taú ɿsing**Start (journey)***M.* 起身 ch'i³ shên¹; 動身
tung⁴ shên¹; 開船 k'ai¹
ch'uan³*S.* (1) 'chi sung; (2) 'dong sung;
(3) k'e zen*C.* 開行 hoi ɿháng; 起脚
行 'héi kōk. ɿhang†**— work***M.* 開工 k'ai¹ kung¹*S.* „ „ k'e kong*C.* „ „ hoi ɿkung**State (condition)***M.* 光景 kuang¹ ching*S.* „ „ kwaung 'kyung*C.* „ „ ɿkwong 'king**— (country)***M.* 國家 kuo² chia*S.* „ „ kok kya*C.* „ kwok.**Station (vb.) (troops)***M.* 駐劄 chu⁴ cha².*S.* „ 紮 dzu tsah*C.* „ 劄 chū² cháp.**Police —***M.* 巡捕房 hstün² pu³ fang²*S.* „ „ „ dzing boo³ vaung*C.* 差館 ɿch'ai 'kwún**Railway —***M.* 火車站 huo³ ch'ê¹ chan⁴*S.* „ „ „ 'hoo ts'o dzan*C.* „ „ „ 頭 'fo ɿch'e
chám² ɿt'áu**Stay***M.* 住 chu⁴; 住下 chu⁴ hsia*S.* „ dzu³; 登拉 tung la³*C.* „ chū²; (2) chū² há²**Steal***M.* 偷 t'ou¹*S.* „ t'eu*C.* „ t'áu

Steam (noun)*M.* 氣 ch'í⁴*S.* „ ch'í³*C.* „ héi³**Steamer***M.* 火輪船 huó³lun²ch'uan²*S.* „ „ „ 'hoo lung zen*C.* „ 船 'fo cshün**Steel***M.* 鋼 kang¹*S.* „ kaung*C.* „ kong²**Steer***M.* 掌舵 chang³ to⁴; 把舵
pa⁴ to⁴*S.* (1) 'tsang 'doo; (2) 'po 'doo*C.* 揸舵 chá t'ai³**Stem (of a plant)***M.* 梗兒 kêng³ 'rh*S.* „ 'kang*C.* 莖 chang**Stick** (noun)*M.* 棍子 kun⁴-tzŭ; 楊棍
kuai³ kun⁴*S.* (1) 'kwung-'ts; 楊杖 kwa
'dzang*C.* (1) kwan²; 楊杖 'kwai
chöng²**Still** (adv.)*M.* 還 hai²; 仍 jêng²; 尚且
shang⁴ ch'ieh*S.* (1) wan; 仍舊 dzung jeu²;
(3) zang² 'ts'ia*C.* 仍然 ying yín; 越 yü²;
重 chung²**There is more** —*M.* 還有 hai² yu³*S.* „ „ wan 'yeu*C.* 重 „ chung² 'yaú**Stirrups***M.* 馬鐙 ma³ têng⁴*S.* „ „ 'mo tung³*C.* „ 踏橙 'má táp. tang²**Stockings***M.* 襪子 wa⁴-tzŭ*S.* „ mah*C.* „ mat₂**Stomach***M.* 肚子 tu⁴-tzŭ*S.* „ 皮 'doo bi*C.* „ 't'ò**Stone***M.* 石頭 shih²-t'ou*S.* „ „ zak deu*C.* „ („) shek₂ (t'áu)**Stop** (trans.)*M.* 停止 t'ing² chih³; 停住
t'ing² chu⁴*S.* (1) ding 'ts; (2) ding dzu³*C.* (1) t'ing 'chí

To stop business*M.* 罷市 *pa*⁴ *shih*⁴*S.* „ „ *'bo* *'z**C.* „ „ *pá*² *'shí***To — work***M.* 住手 *chu*⁴ *shou*³*S.* 歇 „ *hyih* *'seu**C.* 收工 *shau*² *kung***— (intrans.)***M.* 站住 *chan*⁴ *chu*⁴*S.* 停 *ding**C.* 歇住 *hít*_o *chü*²**Stores***M.* (provisions) 伙食 *huo*³
*shih*²; (gear) 傢伙 *chia*¹
*huo**S.* (provisions) (1) *'hoo* *zuh*;
(gear) (2) *kya* *'hoo**C.* (provisions) (1) *'fo* *shik*₂;
(gear) (2) *ká* *'fo***Storm***M.* 大風 *ta*⁴ *fêng*¹; 暴風
*pao*⁴ *fêng*¹*S.* 大風雨 *doo*² *fong* *'yui**C.* 打 „ *'ta* *fung***Straight***M.* 直 *chih*²*S.* „ *dzuh**C.* „ *chik*₂**To go straight ahead***M.* 一直走 *i*¹ *chih*² *tsou*³*S.* „ „ „ *ih* *dzuh* *'tseu**C.* „ „ 前去 *yat*, *chik*₂
ts'ín *hui*²**A — line***M.* 直線 *chih*² *hsien*⁴*S.* „ „ *dzuh* *sien*³*C.* „ „ *chik*₂ *sín*²**Strange***M.* 奇怪 *ch'i*² *kuai*⁴; 怪
*kuai*⁴*S.* (1) *ji* *kwa*³; (2) *kwa*³*C.* (1) *gk'éi* *kwái*²; (2) *kwái*²**Stranger***M.* 外人 *wai*⁴ *jên*²; 客人
*k'o*⁴ *jên*²*S.* (1) *nga*² *nyung*; (2) *k'ak*
nyung; 慕生人 *mak*
sang *nyung**C.* 生客 *sháng* *hák*_o; 遠
客 *'yün* *hák*_o**Strap***M.* 皮條 *p'i*² *t'iao*³; 皮帶
p'i *tai*⁴*S.* „ „ *bi* *diau*; (2) *bi* *ta*²*C.* (2) *p'éi* *tái*²**Straw***M.* 草 *ts'ao*³*S.* „ *'ts'au**C.* 禾稈 *wo* *'kon*

Stream

M. 小河 hsiao³ ho²

S. „ „ 'siau 'oo

C. „ „ 'siú ho

Street

M. 街 chieh¹

S. „ ka

C. „ kái

In the —

M. 在街上 tsai⁴ chieh¹
shang

S. „ „ „ 'dze ka 'laung

C. „ „ „ tsoi² kái
shōng²

Strength

M. 力量 li⁴ liang; 力氣
li⁴ chí

S. (1) lih liang; (2) lih chí

C. (1) lik₂ löng²; 氣力 héi²
lik₂

Strike

M. 打 ta³; 毆打 ou¹ ta³

S. „ 'tang; 敲打 k'au
'tang

C. (1) 'tá; (2) áu² 'tá

To — work

M. 罷工 pa⁴ kung¹

S. „ „ 'bo kong

C. „ „ pá² kung

String

M. 繩子 shêng²-tzu

S. „ zung; 線 sien²

C. „ shing

Strong

M. 結實 chieh¹-shih; 有力
量 yu³ li⁴-liang

S. (1) kyih zeh; 強壯 jang
tsaung²

C. 有力嘅 yau² lik₂ ke²
— (robust)

M. 壯 chuang⁴

S. „ tsaung²

C. „ chong²

This wall is very —

M. 那城牆狠堅固
na⁴ ch'êng² ch'iang² hên³
chien¹ ku⁴

S. 第个城牆極堅固
di² kuh dzung ziang juh
kyien koo²

C. 呢幅牆好堅固 ni
fuk, ts'ōng 'hò kín kwú²

Stupid

M. 糊塗 hu² t'u; 蠢笨
ch'un³ pên

S. 呆笨 nge bung

C. 愚蠢 yü² 'ch'un

Submarine

M. 潛水艇 ch'ien² shui³
t'ing³; 海底行船
hai³ ti³ hsing² ch'uan²

S. (1) zien 's t'ing; 水底
潛行艇 's 'ti zien
'ang t'ing

C. (1) ts'ím 'shui 't'eng¹

Sudden

- M. 忽然 hu¹ jan²
 S. „ „ hweh zen
 C. „ „ fat, yín

Sugar

- M. 糖 t'ang²
 S. „ „ daung
 C. „ „ t'ong

Suitable

- M. 合式 ho² shih⁴; 合宜
 ho² i²
 S. (1) 'eh suh; (2) 'eh nyi
 C. (1) hop₂ shik,
 Is perfectly —
 M. 很可以 hên³ k'o³ i³
 S. 極合宜 juh 'eh nyi
 C. 正 „ 式 ching' hop₂
 shik,

Summer

- M. 夏天 hsia⁴ t'ien
 S. „ „ 'au³ t'ien
 C. „ „ há² t'ín

Sun

- M. 日頭 jih⁴ t'ou; 太陽
 t'ai⁴ yang
 S. (1) nyih deu; (2) t'a² yang
 C. (1) yat, t'au*; 熱頭 yít₂
 t'au*; 日光 yat₂ kwong

In the —

- M. 在太陽地裏 tsai⁴ t'ai⁴
 yang ti⁴ li

S. 在太陽地裏 'dze t'a'
 yang di³ 'li

C. 在熱頭處 tsoi² yít₂
 t'au* shü'

Sunday

- M. 禮拜日 li³ pai⁴ jih⁴
 S. „ „ „ 'li pa' nyih
 C. „ „ „ 'lai pái' yat₂

Sunrise

- M. 太陽出 (or 天亮) 的
 時候 t'ai⁴ yang ch'u¹ (or
 t'ien¹ liang) ti shih² hou
 S. 太陽出來 (or 天亮)
 個時候 t'a² yang ts'eh
 le (or t'ien liang²) kuh z-'eu'
 C. 日出 yat₂ ch'ut,

Sunset

- M. 太陽落的時候 t'ai⁴
 yang lao⁴ ti shih² hou
 S. 太陽落山個時候
 t'a² yang lauh san kuh z-'eu'
 C. 日落 yat₂ lok₂

Supplies

- M. 伙食 huó³ shih²; 傢伙
 chia¹ huó; (mil.) 軍需
 chün¹ hsü¹
 S. (1) 'hoo zuh; (2) kya 'hoo;
 (mil.) (3) kyuin sui
 C. (1) 'fo shik₂; (mil.) (3) kwan
 sui

Surgeon

M. 太夫 tai⁴ fu; 外科先生 wai⁴ k'o¹ hsien¹ shêng

S. (2) nga³ k'oo sien sang

C. (2) ngoi² fo sîn sháng

Surrender

M. 投降 t'ou² hsiang²; 降服 hsiang² fu²

S. (1) deu 'aung

C. (1) t'áu hong

Suspect

M. 疑惑 i² huó

S. „ „ nyi wo

C. 思疑 sz yí

Sweet

M. 甜 t'ien²; 甘肔 kan¹ t'ien²

S. „ „ dien

C. „ „ t'fm

Swim

M. 浮水 fu² shui³

S. 游 „ yeu 's

C. 泅 „ gyáu 'shui

Sword

M. 刀 tao¹; 腰刀 yao¹ tao¹

S. (1) tau; (2) iau tau

C. 劍 kím³

To draw a —

M. 拔刀 pa² tao¹

S. „ „ bah tau

C. „ 劍 pat₂ kím³

Table

M. 桌子 cho¹-tzú

S. 檯 „ de-'ts

C. „ t'oi*

Tael (ounce weight)

M. 兩 liang³

S. „ 'liang

C. „ 'lǒng

Take

M. 拏 na²; 把 pa⁴

S. „ „ nau

C. 擱 lo; 擱 ning; 拈 níng

To — out

M. 拏出來 na² ch'u¹ lai²

S. „ „ „ nau ts'eh le

C. 擱 „ 去 ning ch'ut, hui²

To — away

M. 拏去 na² ch'ü⁴

S. „ „ nau chi²

C. 擱 „ ning hui²; 取 ts'ui

Talk

M. 說話 shuo¹ hua⁴

S. 白 „ bak wo³

C. 講 'kong

Tall

M. 高 kao¹; 長 ch'ang²

S. „ kau; „ dzang

C. „ kò

Tame

- M.* 熟 shou²; 養熟的
yang³ shou² ti
S. (1) zok; 養熟 'yang zok
C. (1) shuk₂; 純 ,, shun shuk₂

Target

- M.* 靶子 pa⁴-tzü
S. ,, ,, po²-ts
C. ,, ,, 'pá-ts

Taste

- M.* 味兒 we(i)⁴ 'rh; 滋味
tzü¹ wei; 味道 wei⁴ tao
S. (2) ts mi²; (3) mi dau²
C. (3) méi² tō²

Sense of —

- M.* 口味 k'ou³ wei⁴
S. ,, ,, 'k'eu mi²
C. ,, ,, 'haú méi²

— (vb.)

- M.* 嘗嘗 ch'ang² ch'ang²
S. ,, ,, zaung zaung
C. ,, shōng

Tea

- M.* 茶 ch'a²
S. ,, dzo
C. ,, ch'á

To make —

- M.* 沏茶 ch'i¹ ch'a²
S. 泡 ,, p'au² dzo
C. 煲茶 pò ch'á; 冲茶
ch'ung ch'á

Teacup

- M.* 茶碗 ch'a² wan³
S. ,, ,, dzo 'wen
C. ,, 杯 ch'á púi

— pot

- M.* 茶壺 ch'a² hu⁴
S. ,, ,, dzo 'oo
C. ,, ,, ch'á wú

Teach

- M.* 教 chiao⁴; 教訓 chiao⁴
hsün
S. ,, kyau³; (2) kyau² hyuin
C. ,, káu²

Teacher

- M.* 先生 hsién¹ shêng; 師
傅 shih¹ fu
S. (1) sien sang; (2) s foo
C. (1) sín sháng

Tear

- M.* 撕開 ssü¹ k'ai¹; 扯開
ch'ê³ k'ai¹
S. (1) s k'e; (2) 'ts'a k'e
C. 擘爛 mák, lán²

The paper is torn

- M.* 紙撕了 chih³ ssü¹ lo
S. ,, 扯破哉 'ts 'ts'a p'oo²
tse
C. 呢張紙撕爛咯 ni
chōng 'chí sz lán² lo²

To tear to pieces

M. 撕碎 ssü¹ sui⁴S. " " s se³C. 扯 " 'ch'e sui³

Telegraph

M. 電報 tien⁴ pao⁴S. " " dien³ pau³C. " " tén² pò²

— wires

M. 電線 tien⁴ hsien⁴S. " " dien³ sien³C. " " tén² sín³

— pole

M. 電杆 tien⁴ kan¹S. " " dien³ kanC. " 線柱 tén² sín³ 'ch'ü

Wireless telegraphy

M. 無線電報 wu² hsien⁴tien⁴ pao⁴S. " " " " m sien³dien³ pau³C. " pò² " " mò sín³ tén²

Telegram

M. 電信 tien⁴ hsin⁴S. " " dien³ sing³C. " " tén² sun³

To send a —

M. 打電報 ta³ tien⁴ paoS. " " " 'tang dien³ pau³C. " " " 'lá tén² pò²

Telescope

M. 千里鏡 ch'ien¹ li³ ching⁴S. " " " ts'ien 'li kyung³C. " " " ts'in 'léi keng³†

Tell

M. 告 kao⁴; 告訴 kao⁴ suS. " kau³; " " kau³ soo³C. 話... 知 wá²... 'chí;話... 聽 wá²... t'eng³†

— him to go

M. 叫他去 chiao⁴ t'a¹ ch'ü⁴S. " 伊 " kyau³ yi chí³C. " 佢 " kú³ 'ui hui³

Temple

M. 廟 miao⁴S. " miao³C. " mfú²*

— of Confucius

M. 文廟 wên² miao⁴S. " " vung miao³C. 聖 " shing³ mfú²

Taoist —

M. 觀 kuan¹; 道廟 tao⁴
miao⁴S. (I) kwen; 道士堂 dau³
'z daungC. (I) kwún³

Buddhist —

M. 寺 ssü⁴; 佛廟 fo² miao⁴S. " z³; " " veh miao³C. " ts'z²*; 佛堂 fat² t'ong

Temple, ancestral

- M. 祖廟 tsu³ miao⁴
 S. „ „ 'tsoo miao'
 C. „ „ 'tsò míú²; 祠堂
 ɿts'z ɿ'ong; 宗廟 ɿtsung
 míú²*

Ten

- M. 十 shih²
 S. „ zeh
 C. „ shap₂

Tent

- M. 帳房 chang⁴ fang²
 S. „ 篷 tsang² bong
 C. „ 房 chǒng² ɿsong*

To pitch a —

- M. 設帳房 shê⁴ chang⁴ fang²
 S. „ „ „ seh tsang² vaung
 C. 搭帳幕 táp. chǒng²
 mok₂; 立帳 láp. chǒng²

Thank you

- M. 多謝 to¹ hsieh⁴; 勞駕
 lao² chia⁴; 借光 chieh⁴
 kuang¹
 S. (1) too zia²; (3) tsia² kwaung
 C. (1) ɿto tse²

That (pron.)

- M. 那個 na⁴ ko; 那 na⁴
 S. 伊个 i kuh
 C. 個個 'ko ko'

Would that

- M. 巴不得 pa¹ pu⁴ tê²
 S. „ 勿 „ po 'veh tuh
 C. „ 不 „ pá pat, tak,

In order —

- M. 爲的是... wei⁴ ti shih⁴
 S. „ 則 we² tsuh; 以致
 ɿ 'ts
 C. 以得 ɿyí tak; 以爲 ɿyí
 wai²

The

- M. (when translated in speech
 mostly rendered by the
 equivalents of 'this' or
 'that')
 S. Ditto
 C. Ditto

Their, theirs

- M. 他們的 t'a¹ mên ti
 S. 伊拉个 yi la² kuh
 C. 佢哋 嘅 ɿk'ui téi² ke²

Them

- M. 他們 t'a¹ mên
 S. 伊拉 yi la²
 C. 佢哋 ɿk'ui téi²

Both of —

- M. 他們倆 t'a¹ mên lia³
 S. 伊拉兩個 yi la² 'liang
 kuh
 C. 佢兩個 ɿk'ui ɿlǒng ko'

Then

M. 那時候 na⁴ shih² hou;

當時 tang¹ shih²

S. 伊個時候 i kuh z-'eu';
(2) taung z

C. 個陣時 ko³ chan² ɕshi *

— (afterwards)

M. 然後 jan² hou⁴; 後來
hou⁴ lai²

S. (1) zen 'eu; (2) 'eu le

C. (1) ɕín hau²; (2) hau² ɕloi

First . . . then . . .

M. 先 . . . 再 . . . hsien¹ . . .
tsai⁴ . . .

S. „ . . . „ . . . sien . . . tse³

C. „ . . . 噉就 ɕín . . .
'kò̃m tsau²

Thence

M. 從那裏 (or 那兒)
ts'ung² na⁴ li (or na⁴ 'rh)

S. 從伊塊 dzong i k'we³

C. 由該處 ɣau² koi ch'ü³

There

M. 那裏 na⁴ li; 那兒 na⁴
'rh; 那邊 na⁴ pien

S. 伊塊 i k'we³; 拉拉 leh
la³

C. 個處 ko³ shü³

These

M. 這 chē⁴; 這些 (個) chē⁴
hsieh¹ (ko)

S. 第個 di³ kuh

C. 呢啲 ni ɔ̃tí

— two men

M. 這兩個人 chē⁴ liang³
ko jên²

S. 第 „ 個 „ di³ 'liang
kuh nyung

C. 呢 „ 個 „ ni ɕlōng
ko³ ɕyan

They

M. 他們 t'a¹ mên

S. 伊拉 yi la³

C. 佢哋 ɕk'ui téi²

Thick

M. 厚 hou⁴

S. „ 'eu

C. „ 'hau

— mud

M. 濃泥 nung² ni²

S. 厚爛泥 'eu lan³ nyi

C. 結泥 kít. ɕnai

The foliage is very —

M. 樹葉很密 shu⁴ yeh⁴
hên³ mi⁴

S. 樹葉極密 zu³ yih juh
mih

C. „ „ 好 „ shü² yí²
'hò mat²

Thief

- M.* 賊 tsei²
S. „ zuh
C. „ ts'ák₂*

Thimble

- M.* 頂針兒 ting³ chē(n)¹ 'rh
S. 抵 „ 'ti tsung
C. 針頂 cham ting

Thin

- M.* 瘦 shou⁴
S. „ seu²; 薄 bok
C. „ shau²; „ pok₂

Thing

- M.* 東西 tung¹ hsi; 物件
 wu⁴ chien⁴
S. 物事 meh z'
C. 野 'ye; (2) mat₂ kín²

Think

- M.* 想 hsiang³; 想一想
 hsiang³ i¹ hsiang³
S. (1) 'siang; (2) 'siang ih 'siang
C. (1) 'söng; 估 'kwú

To — of a plan

- M.* 想個法子 hsiang³ ko
 fa²-tzu
S. „ 个 „ „ 'siang kuh
 fah-'ts
C. „ 出一條法子
 'söng ch'ut, yat, t'íu fát.
 'isZ

Third

- M.* 第三 ti⁴ san¹
S. „ „ di² san
C. „ „ tai² sam

One —

- M.* 三 分 之 一 san¹ fên¹
 chih i¹
S. „ „ „ „ san vung²
 ts ih
C. „ „ „ „ sam fan²
 chi yat,

Thirsty

- M.* 渴了 k'o³ lo
S. 口乾 'k'eu koen
C. 頸渴 'keng† hot₀

Are you —

- M.* 你渴不渴 ni³ k'o³ pu
 k'o³
S. 儂阿口乾否 nong a
 'k'eu koen va²
C. 你頸渴唔頸渴呢
 'néi 'keng† hot₀ m 'keng†
 hot₀ ni

This

- M.* 這 chē⁴; 這個 chē⁴ ko
S. 第 di²; 第个 di² kuh
C. 呢個 ni ko²

Those

- M.* 那 na⁴; 那些 (個) na⁴
 hsieh¹ (ko)
S. 伊 i; 伊个 i kuh
C. 個啲 ko² 'ti

Thousand

- M. 千 ch'ien¹
 S. „ ts'ien
 C. „ ㄑㄧㄢˊ

Thread

- M. 線 hsien⁴
 S. „ sien²
 C. „ ㄒㄩㄢˊ

Threaten

- M. 嚇呼 hsia⁴ hu
 S. „ hak
 C. 恐嚇 chung hák。

Three

- M. 三 san¹
 S. „ san
 C. „ ㄙㄢˊ

Throat

- M. 嗓子 sang³-tzu
 S. 喉嚨 'oo long
 C. „ „ ㄏㄠˊ ㄌㄨㄥˊ

Through

- M. 從 ts'ung²; 打 ta³; 通 t'ung¹; 過 kuo⁴
 S. (1) dzong; (2) 'tang; (3) t'ong; (4) koo
 C. (1) ㄘㄨㄥˊ; (2) 'tá; (3) t'ung; (4) kwo

Pass — here

- M. 打這兒過 ta³ ché⁴ 'rh kuo⁴

- S. 經過此地 kyung koo² 'ts' di²

- C. „ „ 呢處 ㄋㄧ ㄕㄨㄛˊ
 ㄋㄧˊ shü²

To pass through a city

- M. 從城過 ts'ung² ch'êng² kuo⁴

- S. 穿過城 ts'en koo² dzung

- C. 經 „ „ ㄐㄧㄥ ㄕㄨㄛˊ
 ㄕㄨㄥˊ sheng*

To be wet —

- M. 濕透了 shih¹ t'ou⁴ lo
 S. „ „ sak t'eu²
 C. „ „ shap, t'au²

Throw

- M. 扔 jêng¹
 S. 丟 tieu; 掄 teh
 C. „ ㄊㄩˊ; 掄 ㄕㄨㄥˊ; 擲 p'ek²†; 掄 ㄊㄢˊ

To — down

- M. 扔下 jêng¹ hsia; 摔 shuai¹
 S. 攢 „ 去 gwan² 'au chi²
 C. 掄落 „ ㄕㄨㄥˊ lok² hui²

Thumb

- M. 大拇指頭 ta⁴ mu chih³ t'ou
 S. „ 指頭 doo² tsih deu
 C. 手 „ 公 'shau 'chí kung

Thunder*M.* 雷 lei²*S.* „ le*C.* „ ɿlui

— (vb.)

M. 打雷 ta³ lei²*S.* 雷響 le 'hyang*C.* 打雷 'tá ɿlui**Thursday***M.* 禮拜四 li³ pai⁴ ssü⁴*S.* „ „ „ 'li pa' s'*C.* „ „ „ 'lai pái' sz'**Tide***M.* 潮水 ch'ao² shui³*S.* „ „ dzau 's*C.* „ „ ɿch'fú 'shui**High —***M.* 潮滿 ch'ao² man³*S.* „ „ dzau 'men*C.* 水大滿流 'shui tái²
'mún ɿlau**Flood —***M.* 長潮 chang³ ch'ao²*S.* „ „ tsang² dzau*C.* 水大 'shui tái²**Ebb —***M.* 落潮 lo⁴ ch'ao²*S.* „ „ lauh dzau*C.* 水乾 'shui ɿkon**Tie***M.* 網 k'un³; 紮 pang³; 拴 shuan¹*S.* (1) 'kw'ung; (2) paung; 結 kyih*C.* (2) 'pong**To — up animals***M.* 拴牲口 shuan¹ shêng¹
k'ou³*S.* 網住中牲 'kw'ung
dzu² tsong sang*C.* (a cow) 奶牛 náí² ɿngau²;
(a dog) 續狗 k'wáng²
'kau**To — a knot***M.* 繫個疙瘩 chi⁴ ko ko¹
ta; 打結 ta³ chieh²*S.* (2) 'tang kyih*C.* (2) 'tá kít.**Tight***M.* 緊 chin³*S.* „ 'kyung*C.* „ 'kan**Tile***M.* 瓦 wa³*S.* „ 'ngau*C.* „ 'ngá**Time***M.* 時 shih²; 時候兒 shih²
hou⁴ 'rh; 工夫 kung¹ fu*S.* (1) z; 時候 z-'eu²; (3)
kong foo*C.* (1) ɿshí; 時候 ɿshí hau²

At the appointed time*M.* 屆時 chieh² shih²*S.* „ 期 kya² ji*C.* „ „ kái² k'ái**A long —***M.* 老大的工夫 lao³ ta⁴
ti kung¹ fu*S.* 長遠 dzang 'yoen*C.* 好耐 'hò noi²**I have no —***M.* 我沒空兒 wo³ mei²
k'ung⁴ 'rh*S.* „ 無 „ 夫 'ngoo m
k'ong³ foo*C.* „ 唔得閒 'ngo ɿm tak,
hán**The first —***M.* 頭一次 t'ou² i¹ tz'ü⁴*S.* „ „ 回 deu ih we*C.* „ „ 次 t'au yat, ts'z'**How many times?***M.* 多少回 to¹ shao³ hui²*S.* 好幾 „ 'hau 'kyi we*C.* 幾多回 'kéi ɿto ɿwú**What — is it?***M.* 幾下鐘 chi³ hsia⁴ chung¹*S.* „ 點 „ 'kyi 'tien tsong²*C.* „ „ „ 呢 'kéi 'tím
chung ɿni**To***M.* (arrive at) 到 tao⁴; (towards)往 wang³*S.* (arrive at) (1) tau²; (towards)向 hyang²*C.* (arrive at) (1) tò²; (towards)向 hōng²**— come — the house***M.* 到家裏來 tao⁴ chia¹
li lai²*S.* „ 屋 „ „ tau² ok 'li le*C.* 嚟到屋跔 'lai tò² uk,
k'ái**Tobacco***M.* 煙 yen¹*S.* „ ien*C.* „ yín**To-day***M.* 今天 chin¹ t'ien¹*S.* „ 朝 kyung tsau*C.* „ 日 ɿkam yat₂**Toe***M.* 脚指頭 chiao³ chih²
t'ou*S.* „ „ „ kyak tsih deu*C.* „ 趾 kok₀ 'chí**To-morrow***M.* 明天 ming² t'ien*S.* „ 朝 ming tsau*C.* 聽日 t'ing yat₂

Tone

M. 聲 shēng¹

S. „ sung

C. „ 音 sheng† yam

The first —

M. 上平 shang⁴ p'ing²

S. „ „ 'zaung bing

The second —

M. 下平 hsia p'ing²

S. „ „ 'au bing

The third —

M. 上聲 shang³ shēng¹

S. „ „ 'zaung sung

The fourth —

M. 去聲 ch'ü⁴ shēng¹

S. „ „ chi² sung

The entering —

M. 入聲 ju⁴ shēng¹

S. „ „ zeh sung

The tones in Cantonese are the
9 book and colloquial tones:

The upper even 上平 shōng²
p'ing

The upper rising 上上 shōng²
shōng

The upper retiring 上去 shōng² hui²

The upper entering 上入 shōng² yap₂

The lower even 下平 há²
p'ing

The lower rising 下上 há²
shōng

The lower retiring 下去 há²
hui²

The lower entering 下入 há²
yap₂

The middle entering 中入
chung yap₂

There is besides these a variant
tone for each of the above
called 變音 pín² yam,
the most important of which
are those for the 上平,
下平, and 下去.

Tongue

M. 舌頭 shê² t'ou

S. „ „ zeh deu

C. 脣 léi²

To-night

M. 今晚 chin¹ wan²; 晚晌
wan² shang

S. „ 夜 kyung ya²

C. (1) kam shán

Too

M. 太 t'ai⁴

S. 貳 t'uh

C. 太 t'ai²

— (also)

M. 也 yeh³

S. „ 'a

C. 都 òtò; 亦都 yik₂ òtò

Tool

M. 傢伙 chia¹ huó

S. „ „ kya¹ hoo

C. 器具 héi² kui²

Tooth

M. 牙 ya²

S. „ „ nga; 牙齒 nga¹ ts¹

C. „ „ ngá

Toothache

M. 牙疼 ya² t'êng²

S. „ „ 齒痛 nga¹ ts¹ t'ong¹

C. „ „ 痛 ngá t'ung²

Top

M. 頭 t'ou²; 頂 ting³; 上

面 shang⁴ mien

S. (1) deu; (2) t'ing; (3) t'zaung
mien¹

C. 頂頭 t'eng¹ t'áu; (3)
shong² mán²

The — of a hill

M. 山頂 shan¹ ting³

S. „ „ san¹ ting

C. „ „ shán t'eng¹

Touch

M. 摸 mo¹; 摩 mo²; 動 tung⁴

S. „ „ mok; (3) t'ong

C. 掂親 tím² ts'an; (2) t'mo

Tough

M. 硬 ying⁴; (meat) 老 lao³;
(metal) 堅 chien¹

S. (1) ngang²; (meat) (2) lau;
(metal) (3) kyien

C. 韌 yan²; (meat) 韌 yan²;
(metal) 堅韌 kín yan²

Towards

M. 向 hsiang⁴; 往 wang³

S. „ „ hyang¹

C. „ „ hōng²

To go — the south

M. 往南邊去 wang³ nan²
pien¹ ch'ü⁴

S. 向 „ „ „ hyang nen
pien chi²

C. „ „ 便 „ hōng² nám
pín² hui²

Towel

M. 手巾 shou³ chin¹

S. „ „ t'seu kyung

C. 面 „ mín² kan

Tower

M. 樓 lou²

S. „ „ leu

C. „ „ lau²*

— (pagoda)

M. 塔 t'a³; 臺 t'ai²

S. „ „ t'ah; „ de

C. „ „ t'áp.

— over a city gate

M. 門樓 mên² lou²

S. 敵 „ dih leu

C. 城門樓 sheng¹ mún¹
lau²*

Town (walled)*M.* 城 ch'êng²*S.* „ dzung*C.* „ ɕsheng⁺**Market —***M.* 鎮店 chên⁴ tien⁴*S.* 市鎮 'z tsung²*C.* 墟 ɕhui**Track***M.* 印兒 yi(n)⁴ 'rh; 踪跡
tsung¹ chi⁴*S.* „ 踪 iung tsong; (2) tsong
tsih*C.* 腳跡 kök_o tsik_o**Cart —***M.* 車印兒 ch'ê¹ yi(n)⁴ 'rh*S.* „ „ 子 ts'o iung-^{ts}*C.* „ „ ɕh'e yan²**Train (railway)***M.* 火輪車 huo³ lun ch'ê¹*S.* „ „ „ 'hoo lung ts'o*C.* „ 車 'fo ɕh'e**Tree***M.* 樹 shu⁴*S.* „ zu²*C.* „ shü²**Trench***M.* 溝 kou¹; 壕溝 hao² kou¹*S.* „ keu; „ „ ha keu*C.* 戰溝 chin² ɕkáu**Trench, a***M.* 一道壕溝 i¹ tao⁴ hao²
kou¹*S.* „ 條 „ „ ih diau ha
keu*C.* „ „ 戰 „ yat, ɕ'tú
chin² ɕkáu**Trot***M.* 越 tien¹*S.* 小跑 'siau bau*C.* 跑花蹄 'p'áu fá ɕt'ai**Trousers***M.* 褲子 k'u⁴-tzü*S.* „ „ k'oo²-^{ts}*C.* „ fú²**Truce***M.* 免戰 mien³ chan⁴*S.* „ „ 'mien tsen²*C.* „ „ 'mín chin²**Flag of —***M.* 免戰旗 mien³ chan⁴ ch'i²*S.* „ „ „ 'mien tsen² ji*C.* „ „ „ 'mín chin² ɕk'ei**Truck***M.* 大車 ta⁴ ch'ê¹*S.* 貨 „ hoo² ts'o*C.* 鐵路貨車 t'f_o lò² fo²
ɕh'e**True***M.* 眞 chên¹; 眞實 chên¹
shih²*S.* (1) tsung; (2) tsung zeh*C.* (1) ɕchan; (2) ɕchan shat₂

Is it true?

M. 是真的不是 shih⁴
chên¹ ti pu⁴ shih

S. 真實否 tsung zeh va²

C. 係真唔係呀 hai²
chan⁵ m hai² á²

Try

M. 試 shih⁴; 試一試 shih⁴
i¹ shih⁴

S. (1) s²; 試試看 s² s²
k'oen²

C. (1) shí²

To — a case

M. 審案 shên³ an⁴

S. „ „ 'sung oen²

C. „ „ 'sham on²

Tuesday

M. 禮拜二 lí³ pai⁴ êrh⁴

S. „ „ „ 'li pa² nyí²

C. „ „ „ 'lái pái² yí²

Turn

M. 轉 chuan³; 掉 tiao⁴

S. „ „ 'tsen

C. „ „ 'chün

— (a wheel)

M. 掙 ning²

S. 旋 zien²

C. 掙 ning²

To — the head

M. 扭過頭兒來 niu³
kuo t'ou² 'rh lai²

S. 回過頭來 we koo² deu
le

C. 掙轉頭 ning² 'chün t'au

To turn sour

M. 變酸 pien⁴ suan¹

S. „ „ pien² soen

C. „ 爲酸 pín² wai² sün

To — upside down

M. 倒過來 tao⁴ kuo lai

S. „ 頭 „ 'tau deu le

C. 顛倒 tīn⁴ t'ò

To — over

M. 翻過來 fan¹ kuo lai

S. „ „ „ fan koo le

C. 反轉 fán² 'chün

Twelve

M. 十二 shih² êrh⁴

S. „ „ zeh nyí²

C. „ „ shap² yí²

Twenty

M. 二十 êrh⁴ shih²

S. „ „ nyí² zeh

C. „ „ yí² shap²

Two

M. 二 êrh⁴; 兩個 liang³ ko;
倆 lia³

S. „ nyí²; „ 个 'liang kuh

C. „ yí²; (2) 'lōng ko²

Umbrella*M.* 傘 san³*S.* „, san²*C.* 遮 ɕhe

— (rain)

M. 雨傘 yŭ³ san³*S.* „, „, 'yui san²*C.* „, 遮 ɕyü ɕhe**Under***M.* 下 hsia⁴; 在底下 tsai⁴
ti³ hsia*S.* (1) 'au; 拉底下 la² di²
'au*C.* (1) há²; 下底 há² 'tai

— a tree

M. 在樹底下 tsai⁴ shu⁴ ti³
hsia*S.* 拉 „, „, „ la² zu² di²
'au*C.* 樹下 shü² há²

— the water

M. 在水裏 tsai⁴ shui³ li*S.* 水下 's 'au*C.* „, „, 'shui há²

— the orders of

M. 手下 shou³ hsia⁴; 屬下
shu³ hsia⁴*S.* (1) 'seu 'au; (2) zok 'au*C.* (1) 'shaú há²**Understand***M.* 懂 tung³; 懂得 tung³ tê²;明白 ming² pai²*S.* (1) 'tong; (2) 'tong tuh; (3)
ming bak*C.* (3) ɕming pák₂; 曉 'hú

Hard to —

M. 難懂 nan² tung³*S.* „, „, nan 'tong*C.* „, 曉 ɕnán 'hú

I — your meaning

M. 我明白你的意思
wo³ ming² pai² ni³ ti³ i⁴-ssü*S.* 我曉得儂个意思
'ngoo 'hyau tuh nong³ kuh
i² s²*C.* 我明白你嘅意思
'ngo ɕming pák₂ 'néi ke' y²
sz²

Do you — English?

M. 英國話你懂不懂
ying¹ kuo hua⁴ ni³ tung³
pu tung³*S.* 儂懂英國話否
nong² 'tong iung kok wo²
va²*C.* 你曉英話唔曉呢
'néi 'hú ying wá²* ɕm 'hú
ni**Undress***M.* 脫衣裳 t'o¹ i¹ shang*S.* „, „, „ t'oeh i zaung*C.* „, „, „ t'üt₀ yí ɕshöng

United States of America

M. 美國 mei³ kuo

S. „ „ ‘me kok

C. „ „ ‘méi kwok.

Unjust

M. 不公道 pu⁴ kung¹ tao;不公平 pu⁴ kung¹
p'ing²S. 勿公道 'veh kong dau³;

勿公平 'veh kong bing

C. 唔公道 ɿm kung tò²

Until

M. 到 tao⁴S. „ tau³C. „ tò³; 至到 ch³ tò³

Up

M. 上 shang⁴

S. „ ‘zaung

C. „ ‘shǒng

To get —

M. 起來 ch'í³ lai²

S. „ „ ‘chi le

C. „ 身 ‘héi shan

To go — a hill

M. 上山 shang⁴ shan¹

S. „ „ ‘zaung san

C. „ „ ‘shǒng shán

To bring —

M. 養活 yang³ huó

S. „ „ ‘yang weh

C. „ ‘yǒng

Us

M. 我們 wo³ mênS. „ 佢 ‘ngoo nyi³C. „ 哋 ‘ngo téi²

Use

M. 用 yung⁴; 使喚 shih³
huan⁴S. „ yong²; 利用 lí yong²C. „ yung²

To — up

M. 用盡 yung⁴ chin⁴S. „ 完 yong² wenC. „ 哋 yung² sái³

Useful

M. 有用處 yu³ yung⁴ ch'ü;有益處 yu³ i² ch'üS. (2) ‘yeu iuh ts'u³; 有用場 ‘yeu yong² dzangC. 有用嘅 ‘yau yung² ke³

Useless

M. 不中用 pu⁴ chung¹yung⁴; 沒用 mei² yung⁴;使不得 shih³ pu⁴ tê⁴S. 勿中用 'veh tsong yong²;無用 m yong²C. 冇用 mò yung²; 唔中用 ɿm chung yung²; (3)

‘shai pat, tak,

Valley

M. 山谷 shan¹ ku³

S. „ „ san kok

C. „ „ shán kuk,

Valuable

M. 貴重 kwei⁴ chung⁴; 值錢 chih² ch'ien²S. (1) kyui³ 'dzong; (2) dzuh dien; 寶貝 'pau pe'C. (1) kwai³ chung²; (2) chik₂ ts'ín *

Veal

M. 小牛肉 hsiao³ niu² jou⁴

S. „ „ „ 'siau nyeu nyok

C. 牛仔 „ ɿngáu 'tsai yuk₂

Vegetables

M. 菜 ts'ai⁴S. „ ts'e²; 菜蔬 ts'e² sooC. „ ts'oi²

Vein

M. 血管 hsieh³ kuan³

S. „ „ hyoeh 'kwen

C. 回血管 ɿwúi hüt₀ 'kwún

Very

M. 很 hên³; 甚 shên⁴

S. 極 juh; 蠻 'man; 頂 'ting

C. 好 'hò; 極 kik₂

Not — good

M. 不很好 pu⁴ hên³ hao³

S. 勿大 „ 'veh doo' 'hau

C. 唔多 „ ɿm to 'hò

It is not very cold

M. 天不大冷 t'ien¹ pu ta⁴ lêng³

S. „ 勿 „ „ t'ien 'veh doo' 'lang

C. 唔係十分冷 ɿm hai² shap₂ fan 'láng

Village

M. 村子 ts'un¹-tzü; 鄉村 hsiang¹ ts'un¹

S. (2) hyang-'ts'ung; 村 'ts'ung

C. 村(鄉) ɿts'ün (ɿhōng)

A small —

M. 庄子 chuang¹-tzü

S. 小村庄 'siau 'ts'ung tsaung

C. 村庄 ɿts'ün ɿchong

Violent

M. 利害 li⁴ hai⁴; 猛烈 mêng³ lieh⁴

S. (1) li' 'e'

C. (2) 'máng lí₂; 兇惡 ɿlung ok₀

Visit

M. 拜 pai⁴; 拜會 pai⁴ hui⁴S. „ pa²; „ „ pa' we'C. 探 'ám³; 拜客 pái' hák₀

To return a —

M. 回拜 hui² pai⁴

S. „ „ we pa'

C. „ „ ɿwúi pái'

Visiting-card

- M. 名片 ming² p'ien⁴
 S. „ „ ming p'ien³
 C. „ 帖 ming t'íp_o

Voice

- M. 聲音 shêng¹ yin
 S. „ „ sung iung
 C. „ „ sheng⁺ yam; 聲
 氣 sheng⁺ héi²

To speak in a low —

- M. 小聲說話 hsiao³ shêng¹
 shuo¹ hua⁴
 S. 低 „ „ ti sung soeh
 wo³
 C. „ „ 講 tai sheng⁺
 'kong

Voyage

- M. 水路 shui³ lu⁴
 S. „ „ 's loo³
 C. „ „ 'shui lò²

Wade

- M. 趟水 t'ang¹ shui³
 S. 蹚 „ ban 's
 C. 揷 „ káng³ 'shui

To — across a river

- M. 趟水過河 t'ang¹ shui³
 kuo⁴ ho³
 S. 蹚 „ „ „ ban 's kòo³
 'oo
 C. 揷 „ „ „ káng³ 'shui
 kwo³ sho

Waist

- M. 腰 yao¹
 S. „ iau
 C. „ yíu

Wait

- M. 等 têng³; 待 tai⁴
 S. „ 'tung; 等候 'tung 'eui³
 C. „ 'tang

— a moment

- M. 等一會兒 têng³ i¹ hui⁴
 'rh
 S. „ „ 歇歇 'tung - ih
 hyih hyih
 C. „ „ 吓 tang yat, 'há

— three days more

- M. 再等三天 tsai⁴ têng³
 san¹ t'ien¹
 S. „ „ „ 日 tse³ 'tung
 san nyih
 C. 等三日添 tang 'sam
 yat₂ t'ím

— till to-morrow

- M. 等到明天 têng³ tao⁴
 ming² t'ien¹
 S. „ „ „ 朝 'tung tau³
 ming tsau
 C. „ „ 聽日 tang tò³
 t'ing yat₂

— till he comes

- M. 等他來 têng³ t'a¹ lai²
 S. „ 伊 „ 'tung yi le
 C. „ 佢嚟 tang 'k'ui lai

To wait on*M.* 服侍 *fu shih*⁴*S.* „ „ *vok* ^{‘z}*C.* „ 事 *fuk*₂ *sz*²**Tell him to —***M.* 叫他等 *chiao*⁴ *t'a*¹ *têng*³*S.* „ 伊 „ *kyau*³ *yi* ^{‘tung}*C.* „ 佢 „ *kiú*³ *k'ui* ^{‘tang}**Wake (trans.)***M.* 叫醒了 *chiao*⁴ *hsing*³ *lo**S.* „ „ *kyau*³ *sing**C.* „ „ *kiú*³ *'seng*[†]**— (intrans.)***M.* 醒 *hsing*³*S.* „ *sing**C.* „ *'seng*[†]**Walk***M.* 走 *tsou*³*S.* „ *'tseu**C.* 行 *cháng*[†]**To — slowly***M.* 慢慢走 *man*⁴ *man*⁴ *tsou*³*S.* „ „ „ *man*³ *man* *'tseú**C.* „ „ 行 *mán*² *mán*^{2*}
cháng[†]**Unable to —***M.* 走不動 *tsou*³ *pu* *tung*⁴*S.* „ 勿 „ *'tseu* *'veh* *'dong**C.* 唔行得 *m* *cháng*[†] *tak*₂**Wall***M.* 牆 *ch'iang*²*S.* „ *ziang**C.* „ *ts'öng***The Great —***M.* 萬里長城 *wan*⁴ *li*³
*ch'ang*² *ch'eng*³*S.* 萬里長城 *van*³ *'lidzang*
*dzung**C.* „ „ „ „ *mán*² *'lei*
ch'öng *sheng*[†]**City —***M.* 城牆 *ch'eng*² *ch'iang*²*S.* „ „ *dzung* *ziang**C.* „ 基 *sheng*[†] *k'ei***Want***M.* 要 *yao*⁴*S.* „ *iau*³*C.* „ *yíu*³**What do you — ?***M.* 你要什麼 *ni*³ *yao*⁴
*shê(n)*² *mo**S.* 儂 „ 啥 *nong* *iau*³ *sa*³*C.* 你 „ 物野 *'néi* *yíu*³
mat *'ye***I am in — of money***M.* 我缺銀子 *wo*³ *ch'üeh*¹
*yin*³ *tzü**S.* „ „ 少銀用 *'ngoo*
choeh *'sau* *nyung* *yong*³*C.* „ 要銀用 *'ngo* *yíu*³
ngan^{*} *yung*²

War

- M. 打仗 ta³ chang⁴; 戰 chan⁴
 S. „ „ 'tang tsang'; „ tsen'
 C. „ „ 'tá chǒng'; „ chín'

To declare —

- M. 投戰書 t'ou² chan⁴ shu¹
 S. „ „ „ deu tsen' su
 C. „ „ „ t'áu chín' shū

Warm

- M. 暖和 nuan³ huo
 S. „ 熱 'noen nyih
 C. „ 'nün

— water

- M. 溫和水 wên¹ huo shui³
 S. „ 水 'wung 's
 C. 煖 „ 'nün 'shuí

The weather is —

- M. 天暖和 t'ien¹ nuan³ huo
 S. „ 熱 t'ien nyih
 C. „ 氣煖 t'ín héi' 'nün

Warn

- M. 儆戒 ching³ chieh
 S. „ „ 'kyung kya'
 C. „ „ 'king kái' (or kái'*)

Wash

- M. 洗 hsi³
 S. „ 'si
 C. „ 'sai

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Waste

- M. 妄費 wang⁴ fei⁴; 耗費 hao⁴ fei⁴
 S. (1) 'waung fi'
 C. 噍 sái'; 費 fai'

To — time

- M. 浪費工夫 lang⁴ fei⁴ kung¹ fu¹
 S. „ „ „ „ laung² fi' kong foo
 C. 費去時日 fai' hui' shí yat₂

Watch (vb.)

- M. 看 k'an⁴; 看守 k'an⁴ shou³
 S. (1) k'o'en; 謹守 'kyung 'seu
 C. (1) chon; (2) chon 'sháu

To — over

- M. 照管 chao⁴ kuan³
 S. „ „ tsau' 'kwen
 C. 保護 'pò wú'; 保守 'pò 'sháu

— (noun)

- M. 更 kêng¹, ching¹
 S. „ kang
 C. „ káng

The second — (night)

- M. 二更天 êrh⁴ ching¹ t'ien¹
 S. „ „ „ nyi' kang t'ien
 C. „ „ yf² káng

F f

Watch (timepiece)*M.* 表 piao³*S.* „, 'piau*C.* 鏢 opíú; 時辰鏢 shí
shan opíú**Watchman***M.* 打更的 ta³ ching¹ ti*S.* 看夜个 k'oen ya² kuh*C.* 打更佬 'tá káng shò**Water***M.* 水 shui³*S.* „, 's*C.* „, 'shui**Wave***M.* 波浪 po¹ lang⁴*S.* „ „ poo laung²*C.* „ „ po long²**We***M.* 我們 wo³ mên; 僭們
tsa² mên*S.* „ 佢 'ngoo nyi²*C.* „ 咁 'ngo téi²**Weak***M.* 軟弱 juan³ jo⁴*S.* „ „ 'nyoen zak; 懦弱
'noo zak*C.* „ „ 'yün yök₂**This tea is too —***M.* 這茶太淡 ché⁴ ch'a²
t'ai⁴ tan⁴*S.* 第个茶忒淡 di² kuh
dzo t'uh dan²*C.* 呢啲茶淡過頭 ni
ti ch'á t'ám kwo² t'au²**Wear (clothes)***M.* 穿 ch'uan¹*S.* „, ts'en*C.* 着 chök.**To — a hat***M.* 戴帽子 tai⁴ mao⁴-tzü*S.* „ „, ta² mau²-ts*C.* „ „, táf mò²***Weather***M.* 天 t'ien¹; 天氣 t'ien¹
chí*S.* (1) t'ien; (2) t'ien chí*C.* (1) t'ín; (2) t'ín héi²**Fine —***M.* 晴天 ch'ing² t'ien¹*S.* 好 „, hau t'ien*C.* „ „, hò t'ín; 天時
晴和 t'ín shí ts'ing
wo²**Cloudy —***M.* 陰天 yin¹ t'ien¹*S.* „ „, iung t'ien*C.* „ „, jam t'ín**Wednesday***M.* 禮拜三 li³ pai⁴ san¹*S.* „ „ „, 'li pa² san*C.* „ „ „, 'lai pái² sám

Week

M. 禮拜 *li³ pai⁴*; 七天
ch'i¹ t'ien¹; 星期 *hsing¹*
ch'i

S. (1) 'li pa³; 七日 *ts'ih nyih*

C. (1) 'lai pái³; (3) 'sing 'k'éi

Weigh

M. 稱 *ch'êng¹*; 約 *yao¹*

S. „ ts'ung; 兌 *de³*

C. „ ch'ing²

To — silver

M. 平銀子 *p'ing² yin² tzü*

S. „ „ „ *bing nyung-'ts*

C. „ 兌銀 *p'ing tui³ ngan^{*}*

To — meat

M. 稱肉 *ch'êng¹ jou⁴*

S. „ „ ts'ung nyok

C. „ „ ch'ing³ yuk₂

Weights two pounds

M. 有二斤重 *yu³ êrh⁴ chin¹*
chung⁴

S. „ „ „ „ 'yeu nyi²
kyung 'dzong

C. 二磅重 *y² pong² 'ch'ung⁺*

How much does it — ?

M. 有多大分兩 *yu³ to¹*
ta⁴ fên⁴ liang³

S. 有幾化分兩 *'yeu 'kyi*
hau³ vung³ 'liang

C. 有幾重 *'yaú 'kéi 'ch'ung⁺*;
 幾多斤兩 *'kéi o¹*
kan 'lōng[?]

To weigh anchor

M. 起錨 *ch'i³ mao²*

S. „ „ 'chi mau

C. „ „ 'héi 'náú

Weight

M. 分兩 *fên liang³*; 輕重
ch'ing¹ chung⁴

S. (1) vung³ 'liang; (2) chung
 'dzong

C. 重 *'ch'ung⁺*; (2) 'heng⁺
'ch'ung⁺

— (for scales)

M. 法碼 *fa² ma*

S. „ „ fah 'mo

C. „ „ fát₀ 'má

Well (adj.)

M. 好 *hao³*; 無恙 *wu² yang⁴*

S. „ 'hau; 爽快 *'saung*
kw'a²

C. „ 'hò

He is —

M. 他好 *t'a¹ hao³*

S. 伊 „ *yi 'hau*

C. 佢 „ *'k'ui 'hò*

— (noun)

M. 井 *ching³*

S. „ 'tsing

C. „ 'tseng⁺

West

M. 西 *hsi¹*

S. „ si

C. „ 'sai

In the west

M. 在西邊 tsai⁴ hsi¹ pien

S. 拉 „ „ la³ si pien

C. 在 „ tsoi² ˌsai

North —

M. 西北 hsi¹ pei³

S. „ „ si pok

C. „ „ ˌsai pak,

— of the river

M. 河西 ho² hsi¹

S. „ „ ˈoo si

C. „ „ ˌho ˌsai

— ward

M. 往西 wang³ hsi¹

S. 向 „ hyang³ si

C. „ „ hōng³ ˌsai

Wet

M. 溼 shih¹; 潮 ch'ao²

S. „ sak; „ dzau

C. „ shap,

What?

M. 甚麼 shê(n)² mo

S. 啥 sa³

C. 邊 ˌpín; 乜 mat,

— is that?

M. 那是甚麼 na⁴ shih⁴
shê(n)² mo

S. 伊个是啥 i kuh ˈz sa³

C. 個啲係乜(野)呢
ko³ ˌti hai² mat, (ˈye) ˌni

In what place?

M. 在什麼地方 tsai
she(n)² mo ti⁴ fang

S. 拉啥地方 la³ sa³ di³
faung

C. 在邊(處) tsoi² ˌpin
(shü³)

In — way?

M. 怎麼樣 tsê(n)³ mo yang⁴

S. 啥法則 sa fah tsuh

C. 點樣 ˈtím yōng²*

Wheat

M. 麥子 mai⁴-tzǔ

S. „ mak

C. „ mak₂

Wheel

M. 車輪子 ch'ê¹ lun²-tzǔ;
輪 lun²

S. „ „ ts'o lung; „ lung

C. (2) ˌlun; 車轆 ch'ê luk,

When?

M. 多啱 to¹ tsan; 甚麼
時候兒 shê(n)² mo
shih³ hou ˈrh

S. 啥時候 sa³ z-ˈeu³; 幾
時 ˈkyi z

C. 幾時 ˈkéi ˌshí

When does he return?

M. 他多啱回來 t'a¹ to¹
tsan hui² lai²

S. 伊幾時回來否 yi
'kyi z we le va²

C. 佢幾時翻嚟呢
k'ui 'kéi shí fán lai ni

Where?

M. 那裏 na³ li; 那兒 na³
'rh

S. (1) 'a 'li; 啥地方 sa²
di² faung

C. 邊處 pín shū²
— is he going?

M. 他往那裏去 t'a¹
wang³ na³ li ch'ü⁴

S. 伊那裏去 yi 'a 'li chi²

C. 佢去邊處 k'ui hui²
pín shū²

— do you come from?

M. 你打那裏來 ni³ ta³
na³ li lai²

S. 儂從啥地方來
nong² dzong sa² di² faung le

C. 你係邊處嚟呢處
呢 néi 'hai pín shū² lai
ni shū² ni

The place — we live

M. 我們住的地方 wo³
mên chu⁴ ti ti⁴ fang

S. 我呢住个地方
'ngoo nyi dzu² kuh di² faung

C. 我哋住個處 ngo
téi² chü² ko² shü²

Wherever

M. 不論那兒 pu⁴ lun⁴ na³
'rh; 不拘甚麼地
方 pu⁴ chü¹ shê(n)² mo
i⁴ fang

S. 勿論啥地方 'veh
lung² sa² di² faung

C. 唔論邊處 m lun² pín
shü²

Whether

M. 或 huo⁴ (but generally left
untranslated)

S. „ 'ok; 或是 'ok 'z

C. 不論 pat, lun²

— or not

M. 是否 shih⁴ fou³

S. „ 勿是 'z 'veh 'z

C. „ 否 shí² 'faú

Which?

M. 那一個 na³ i¹ ko⁴

S. „ 裏一个 'a 'li ih kuh

C. 邊個 pín ko²

While

— it is raining

M. 下雨的時候 hsia⁴
yü³ ti shih⁴ hou

S. 落雨个時候 lauh
'yui kuh z-'eu²

C. 落緊雨呢陣時 lok²
'kan 'yü² ni chan² shí

Not worth while*M.* 不值 pu⁴ chih²*S.* 勿 „ 'veh dzuh*C.* 不可以有益 pat, 'ho
ɿ'í ɿyaú yik,**Whip***M.* 鞭子 pien¹-tzü*S.* „ „ pien-ɿs*C.* „ ɿpín**White***M.* 白 pai²*S.* „ bak*C.* „ pák₂**Who?***M.* 誰 shui²*S.* 啥人 sa³ nyung*C.* 邊個 ɒpin ko²; 乜人
mat, ɿyan *

— is he?

M. 他是誰 t'a¹ shih⁴ shui²*S.* 伊 „ 啥人 yi 'z sa³
nyung*C.* 佢係乜誰 ɿk'ui hai²
mat, ɿshui ***It is he — did it***M.* 是他做的 shih⁴ t'a¹
tso⁴ ti*S.* „ 伊 „ 个 'z yi tsoo³
kuh*C.* 係佢做 hai² ɿk'ui tsò²**Whole***M.* 全 ch'üan²*S.* „ dzien; 完全 wen dzien*C.* „ ɿts'ün; 成 ɿsheng⁺**The — family has been ill***M.* 一家子全病了 yi¹
chia¹-tzü ch'üan² ping⁴ lo*S.* 滿門全病 'men mung
dzien bing*C.* 全家係有病 ɿts'ün
ká hai² ɿyaú peng² +**The — body***M.* 渾身 hun² shên¹*S.* „ „ wung sung*C.* — „ yat, ɿshan; 全身
ɿts'ün ɿshan**The — day***M.* 整天 chêng³ t'ien¹*S.* „ 日 tsong nyih*C.* 成 „ ɿsheng⁺ yat₂**The — room***M.* 滿屋子 man³ wu¹-tzü*S.* „ 房間 'men vaung kan*C.* 成間房 ɿsheng⁺ ɿkán
ɿfong ***The — way***M.* 一路 i¹ lu⁴*S.* 齊 „ zi loo²*C.* 一 „ yat, lò²

Why?

M. 爲甚麼 *wei*⁴ *shê*(*n*)² *mo*

S. „ 啥 *we*³ *sa*³

C. 點解 *‘tím* *‘kái*; 做乜
*tso*² *mat*,; 爲乜事 *wai*²
mat, *sz*²

That is —

M. 因爲這個 *yin*¹ *wei*⁴
*chê*⁴ *ko*

S. „ „ 伊个 *iung* *we*³
i *kuh*

C. „ 此之故 *yan* *‘ts’z*
*‘chí kwú*²

Wide

M. 寬 *k’uan*¹; 廣 *kuang*³

S. 濶 *kw’eh*

C. „ *fút*.

The river is very —

M. 河很寬 *ho*² *hên*³ *k’uan*¹

S. „ 極濶 *‘oo juh kw’eh*

C. „ 好 „ *‘ho ‘hò fút*.

Widow

M. 寡婦 *kua*³ *fu*

S. „ „ *‘kwo voo*³

C. „ „ *‘kwá ‘fú*; 寡母
婆 *‘kwá ‘mò ‘p’o*

Wife

M. 妻 *ch’i*¹; 媳婦兒 *hsi*²
*fu*⁴ *‘rh*

S. „ *ts’i*; 娘子 *nyang* *‘ts*

C. „ *‘ts’ai*

Wild

M. 野 *yeh*³

S. „ *‘ya*

C. „ *‘ye*

— *beasts*

M. 野獸 *yeh*³ *shou*⁴

S. „ „ *‘ya seu*³

C. „ „ *‘ye shaú*³

— *country*

M. 曠野地方 *k’uang*⁴ *yeh*³
*ti*⁴ *fang*¹

S. „ „ „ „ *kwaung* *‘ya*
*di*³ *faung*

C. „ „ „ „ *k’wong*² *‘ye*
*téi*² *‘fong*

Will (noun)

M. 心 *hsin*¹; 心志 *hsin*¹
*chih*⁴

S. (1) *sing*; (2) *sing ts’*; 主
意 *‘tsu i*²

C. 志意 *chí yí*²

Willing

M. 願意 *yüan*⁴ *i*⁴; 肯 *k’ên*³;
甘心 *kan*¹ *hsin*¹

S. (1) *nyoen*³ *i*²; (2) *‘k’ung*; (3)
ken sing; 情願 *dzing*
*nyoen*³

C. (2) *‘hang*; 中意 *‘chung*
yí; (3) *‘kom ‘sam*

Win

M. 勝 *shêng*⁴

S. „ *sung*²

C. „ *shing*²

To win a battle*M.* 打勝仗 ta³shêng⁴chang⁴*S.* „ „ „ tang sung³tsang³*C.* „ „ „ tá shing³chông³**— (a game)***M.* 贏 ying²*S.* „ yung*C.* „ yeng⁺**Wind***M.* 風 fêng¹*S.* „ fong*C.* „ fung**A head —***M.* 頂風 ting³fêng¹*S.* 逆 „ nyuh fong*C.* 頂頭風 t'ing t'áu fung;逆風 ngák₂ fung**To — up (a watch)***M.* 上絃 shang⁴hsien²*S.* 開 k'e*C.* 上鏈 shöng lín ***Window***M.* 窗戶 ch'uang¹hu*S.* „ 子 ts'aung-ts*C.* „ 門 ch'öng mún**Wine***M.* 酒 chiu³*S.* „ tsieu*C.* „ tsau**Wing***M.* 翅兒 ch'ih⁴'rh; 翅膀兒 ch'ih⁴pang³'rh*S.* 扇翎 kyí³lih*C.* 翼 yik₂**Left — (of an army)***M.* 左翼 tso³i⁴*S.* „ „ tsí³yuh*C.* „ „ 'tso' yik₂; 左畸
'tso k'ei**Winter***M.* 冬天 tung¹t'ien¹*S.* „ „ tong t'ien*C.* „ „ t'ung t'ín**Wire***M.* 絲 ssü¹; 線 hsien⁴*S.* „ s; „ sien³*C.* (2) sín³**Telegraph —***M.* 電線 tien⁴hsien⁴*S.* „ „ dien³sien³*C.* „ „ tín²sín³**Wireless (telegraphy)***M.* 無線電報 wu²hsien⁴tien⁴pao⁴*S.* „ „ „ „ msien³dien³
pau³*C.* 有 „ „ „ „mo sín³tín²
pò

Wise

M. 有智着 *yu³ chih⁴ chao;*

明白 *ming² pai²*

S. 智 *ts³*; 有智慧 *⁴yeu ts³ we³*

C. „ *ch²*; „ „ „ *⁴yau ch² wai²*

— (prudent)

M. 謹慎 *chin³ shên⁴*

S. „ „ *kyung³ zung³*

C. „ „ *⁴kan shan²*

Wish

M. 願意 *yüan⁴ i⁴*; 要 *yao⁴*

S. „ „ *nyoen³ i³*; „ *iau³*

C. „ *yün²*

He does not — to come

M. 他不願意來 *t'a¹ pu yüan⁴ i lai²*

S. 伊勿願意來 *yi 'veh nyoen³ i³ le*

C. 佢唔願嚟 *⁴k'ui ⁴m yün² ⁴lai*

With

M. 和 *ho²*; 同 *t'ung²*; 跟 *kên¹*

S. (1) *⁴oo*; (2) *⁴dong*; 與 *yui*

C. (2) *⁴t'ung*

I am going — you

M. 我同你去 *wo³ t'ung² ni³ ch'ü⁴*

S. 我搭儂一淘去 *⁴ngoo tah nong⁴ ih dau chi⁴*

C. 我同你去 *⁴ngo ⁴t'ung ⁴néi hui³*

To hit — a stick

M. 使棍子打 *shih³ kun⁴-tzũ ta³*

S. 用 „ „ „ *yong³ ⁴kwung-⁴ts ⁴tang*

C. 俾條棍打 *⁴péi ⁴t'fú kwan³ ⁴lá*

Come — me

M. 你跟我來 *ni³ kên¹ wo³ lai²*

S. 儂 „ „ „ *nong kung ⁴ngoo le*

C. 同我去 *⁴t'ung ⁴ngo hui³*

Without

M. 沒 *mei²*; 沒有 *mei² yu³*; 非 *fei¹*

S. 無沒 *m meh*; (3) *fi*

C. 有 *⁴mò*

— that it cannot be done

M. 非那個不行 *fei¹ na⁴ ko pu⁴ hsing²*

S. 非伊个做勿來 *fi i kuh tsoo³ 'veh le*

C. 有此則不能成 *⁴mò ⁴ts'z tsak, pat, ⁴nang ⁴shing*

Witness

M. 證見 chêng⁴ chienS. „ „ tsung³ kyien³; 干
證 koen tsung³C. 證人 ching³ ȳan

To bear —

M. 做證見 tso⁴ chêng⁴
chienS. „ „ „ tsoo³ tsung³
kyien³C. „ „ tsò² ching³

Wolf

M. 狼 lang²

S. „ laung

C. 豺狼 ch'ái ȳlong

Woman

M. 女人 nū³ jên²

S. „ „ 'nyui nyung

C. „ „ 'nui ȳan*

Wood

M. 木頭 mu⁴ t'ou

S. „ „ mok 'deu

C. „ muk₂

— (trees)

M. 樹林子 shu⁴ lin²-tzǔ

S. „ „ zu' ling

C. „ „ shü² ȳlam

Wool

M. 羊毛 yang² mao²

S. „ „ yang mau

C. „ „ ȳöng mò

Woollen

M. 羊毛做的 yang² mao²
tso⁴ tiS. „ „ „ 个 yang mau
tsoo³ kuh

C. 絨 ȳung*

Word

M. 話 hua⁴; 言 yen²; (written)
字 tǔ⁴S. (1) wo³; (2) yien; (written)
(3) z²C. (1) wá²; 話頭 wá² t'áu;
(2) ȳín; (written) (3) tsz²

To break one's —

M. 失信 shih¹ hsin⁴S. „ „ seh sing³C. „ „ 口齒 shat, 'háu 'ch'í;
食言 shí₂ ȳín

Work

M. 工 kung¹; 工夫 kung¹ fu¹

S. (2) kong foo

C. (1) ȳkung; (2) ȳkung fú

To — (manual labour)

M. 做活 tso⁴ huo²S. „ „ 工 tsoo³ kongC. „ „ tsò² ȳkung

World

M. 世界 shih⁴ chieh; 地
球 tí⁴ ch'iu²S. (1) s' ka²; (2) dī² jeuC. (1) shai² kái²; (2) téi² ȳk'áu

The whole world

- M.* 普天下 p'u³ t'ien¹ hsia⁴
S. „ „ „ p'oo t'ien 'au
C. „ „ „ p'dò t'ín há²

Worm

- M.* 虫子 ch'ung²-tzu
S. „ dzong
C. „ ch'ung

Worse

- M.* 更不好 kêng⁴ pu⁴ hao³
S. „ 勿 „ kung³ 'veh 'hau
C. „ 弊 kang³ pai²

Worth (noun)

- M.* 價值 chia⁴ chih²
S. 值價 dzuh ka³
C. 值 chik₂

Not —

- M.* 不值得 pu⁴ chih² tê
S. 勿 „ 个 'veh dzuh kuh
C. 唔值 m chik₂

Wound

- M.* 傷 shang¹
S. „ saung
C. „ shǒng

To —

- M.* 打傷 ta³ shang¹
S. „ „ tang saung
C. „ „ tá shǒng

To receive a wound

- M.* 受傷 shou⁴ shang¹
S. „ „ 'zeu saung
C. „ „ shaú² shǒng

Wounded

- M.* 受傷的 shou⁴ shang¹ ti
S. „ „ 个 'zeu saung kuh
C. „ „ shaú² shǒng

Mortally —

- M.* 打的死傷 ta³ ti ssǔ³ shang¹
S. 致命傷 ts' ming' saung
C. 受傷致死 shaú² shǒng chi² 'sz

Wreck

- M.* 破船 p'o⁴ ch'uan²; 沉船 ch'ên² ch'uan²
S. (1) p'oo' zen; (2) dzung zen
C. 船受破損 shün shaú² p'dò 'sün

Wreckage

- M.* 沉船木料 ch'ên² ch'uan² mu⁴ liao³
S. „ „ „ „ dzung zen mok liau³
C. 船破爛之物 shün p'o' lán² chí mat₂

Wrist

- M.* 手腕子 shou³ wan⁴-tzu
S. „ „ 'seu 'wen
C. „ „ 'shaú 'wún; 手眼骨 'shaú 'ngán kwat,

Write

M. 寫 hsieh³

S. „ 'sia

C. „ 'se

To — a letter

M. 寫信 hsieh³ hsin⁴S. „ „ 'sia sing³C. „ „ 'se sun³

To learn to —

M. 學寫字 hsüeh² hsieh³
tzü⁴S. „ „ „ 'auh 'sia z³C. „ „ „ hok² 'se tsz²

To — out a list

M. 開單子 k'ai¹ tan¹-tzü

S. „ „ „ k'e tan-'ts

C. „ „ ɬoi ɬán

Wrong

M. 錯 ts'o⁴

S. „ ts'o

C. „ ts'o³

You are —

M. 你錯了 ni³ ts'o⁴ lo

S. 儂 „ 哉 nong ts'o tse

C. 你 „ 咯 ɛnéi ts'o³ lok³

Yacht

M. 游歷船 yu² li⁴ ch'uan²

S. „ „ „ yeu li zen

S. „ 樂小舟 ɣaú lok²
'sfú ɬau

Yard

M. 院子 yüan⁴-tzü; 廠子
ch'ang³-tzüS. 天井 t'ien 'tsing; 塲
dzangC. „ „ ɬ'fn 'tseng⁺

Timber —

M. 木廠 mu³ ch'ang³

S. „ 塲 mok dzang

C. „ 廠 muk² 'ch'ong

Year

M. 年 nien²

S. „ nyien

C. „ ɲín

— (of age)

M. 歲 sui⁴S. „ soe³C. „ sui³

This —

M. 今年 chin¹ nien

S. „ „ kyien nyien

C. „ „ ɬam ɲín

Last —

M. 去年 ch'ü⁴ nienS. 舊 „ jeu³ nyienC. 去 „ hui³ ɲín; 舊年
kau² ɲín

Next —

M. 明年 ming² nien

S. „ „ ming nyien

C. „ „ ɬming ɲín; 出年
ch'ut, ɲín

A good year (for farmers)*M.* 好年頭 hao³ nien² t'ou²*S.* „ „ „ hau² nyien 'deu*C.* „ „ „ 'hò g'nín t'au**Yellow***M.* 黃 huang²*S.* „ „ „ waung*C.* „ „ „ ɿwong**Yes***M.* 是 shih⁴; 不錯 pu² ts'o⁴*S.* „ „ „ 'z; 勿錯 'veh ts'o*C.* 係 hai²**Yesterday***M.* 昨天 tso² t'ien*S.* „ „ „ zauh nyih*C.* „ „ „ tsok₂ yat₂**The day before —***M.* 前天 ch'ien² t'ien*S.* „ „ „ zien nyih*C.* „ „ „ ɿt'in yat₂**Yet***M.* 還 hai²*S.* „ „ „ wan*C.* 尙 shōng²**— (nevertheless)***M.* 然而 jan êrh*S.* „ „ „ zen r*C.* 仍然 yíng yín**Not come yet***M.* 還沒來 hai² mei² lai²*S.* 勿會 „ 'veh zung le*C.* 未 „ 嚟 méi² ɿts'ang ɿlai**There are more —***M.* 還有 hai² yu³*S.* „ „ „ wan 'yeu*C.* 重 „ chung² ɿyau**Although . . . —***M.* 雖然 . . . 也 sui¹ jan²
... yeh³*S.* „ „ „ „ soe zen
... 'a*C.* „ „ „ 重 ɿsui ɿyín
... chung²**You***M.* 你 ni³*S.* 儂 nong³; 那 na²*C.* 你 ɿnéi**— (plural)***M.* 你們 ni³ men*S.* 儂那 nong³ na²*C.* 你哋 ɿnéi téi²**— (more politely)***M.* 您 nin²; 閣下 ko² hsia*S.* (2) kuh 'au; 先生 sien
sang*C.* (2) kok₀ há²

Young

M. 小 hsiao³; 年輕的
nien² ch'ing¹ ti

S. (1) 'siau; 年紀輕 nyien
kyi² chung

C. 後生 hau² sháng; 細
sai²

Your

M. 你的 ni³ ti; 你們的
ni³ mên ti; 您的 nin² ti

S. 儂个 nong² kuh; 那個
na² kuh

C. 你嘅 néi ke²; 你啲
néi ti

PHRASES, QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

TIME AND PLACE

Where is ?

M. 在那兒 (or 那裏) tsai⁴ na³ 'rh (or na³-li)

S. 拉 „ 裏 la³ 'a 'li

C. 喺邊處 'hai ɔpín shü

Where are they ?

M. 他們在那兒 (or 那裏) t'a¹-mên tsai⁴ na³ 'rh (or na³-li)

S. 伊拉拉 „ 裏 yi la³ la³ 'a 'li

C. 佢哋喺邊處呢 'k'ui téi² 'hái ɔpín shü 'ni

They are here.

M. 他們在這兒 (or 這裏) t'a¹-mên tsai⁴ chē⁴ 'rh (or chē⁴-li)

S. 伊拉此地 yi la³ 'ts' di³

C. 佢哋喺呢處 'k'ui téi² 'hai 'ni shü

He is not here.

M. 他不在這兒 (or 這裏) t'a¹ pu tsai⁴ chē⁴ 'rh (or chē⁴-li)

S. 伊勿拉此地 yi 'veh la³ 'ts' di³

C. 佢唔喺呢處 'k'ui ɔm 'hai 'ni shü

Where are you going ?

M. 你上那兒去 ni³ shang⁴ na³ 'rh ch'ü⁴

S. 儂到 „ 裏 „ nong² tau³ 'a 'li chí²

C. 你而家去邊處呢 'néi ɔf 'ká hui³ ɔpín shü 'ni

Where have you come from ?

M. 你打那兒來 $ni^3 ta^3 na^3 'rh lai^2$

S. 儂從 „ 裏 „ $nong^2 dzong 'a 'li le$

C. 你由邊處嚟呢 $'néi 'yau 'pín shü^2 'lai 'ni$

I am going home.

M. 我回家 $wo^3 hui^2 chia^1$

S. „ 到屋裏去 $'ngoo tau^2 ok 'li chi^2$

C. „ 而家翻 „ 歸 $'ngo 'yí 'ká 'fán hui^2 'kwai$

We have come from home.

M. 我們打家裏來了 $wo^3-mên ta^3 chia^1 li lai^2 lo$

S. „ 佢從屋 „ „ $'ngoo nyi^2 dzong ok 'li le$

C. „ 咁地由 „ 跔嚟 $'ngo téi^2 'yau uk, 'k'éi 'lai$

Come up.

M. 上來 $shang^4 lai$

S. „ „ $'zaung le$

C. „ 嚟 $'shöng 'lai$

Go down.

M. 下去 $hsia^4 ch'ü$

S. „ „ $'au chi^2$

C. 落 „ $lok^2 hui^2$

Turn to the right (left).

M. 右(左)邊走 $yu^4 (tso^3) pien^1 tsou^3$

S. „ („) „ 轉 $yeu^2 (tsi^2) pien 'tsen$

C. 轉翻右(左)手 $'chün 'fán 'yau^2 ('tso) 'shau$

Stand still there.

M. 站住 $chan^4 chu^4$

S. 立定 $lih ding^2$

C. 企個處 $'k'éi ko^2 shü^2$

Wait for me.

M. 等我 têng³ wo³

S. „ „ 來 'tung 'ngoo le

C. „ „ 嚟 'tang 'ngo ɿlai

Come with me.

M. 跟我來 kên¹ wo³ lai²

S. 搭 „ 一淘來 tah 'ngoo ih dau le

C. 同 „ 嚟 ɿ'tung 'ngo ɿlai

Go away.

M. 去罷 ch'ü⁴ pa

S. „ „ chi² ba

C. 扯咯 'ch'e lo^k

In which direction?

M. 向那裏去了 hsiang⁴ na³ li ch'ü⁴ lo; 往那邊
wang³ na³ pien¹

S. 向那裏一面 hyang² 'a 'li ih mien²

C. „ 邊頭 hōng² ɿpín ɿ'táu

In that direction.

M. 往那邊 wang³ na⁴ pien¹

S. 到伊个路 tau² i kuh loo²

C. 向個頭 hōng² ko² ɿ'táu

How far is it?

M. 有多遠 yu³ to¹ yüan³

S. 幾化 „ 'kyi hau² 'yoen

C. 有幾 „ 'yaú 'kéi 'yün

It is not far.

M. 不遠 pu⁴ yüan³

S. 勿 „ 'veh 'yoen

C. 有幾遠 'mò 'kéi 'yün

Two hours' distance.

M. 遠兩點鐘的工夫 yüan³ liang³ tien³ chung¹ ti kung¹-fu

S. 兩點鐘个路程 'liang 'tien tsong kuh loo' dzung

C. „ „ „ 咁遠路 'lōng 'tīm o chung kom' 'yün lō'

When will he come?

M. 他多啱來 t'a¹ to¹-tsan lai²

S. 伊啥時候來 yi sa³ z-'eu' le

C. 佢幾 „ 嚟呢 'k'ui 'kéi 'shí 'lai 'ni

At what o'clock?

M. 甚麼時候兒來 shê(n)²-mo shih²-hou 'rh lai²

S. 幾點鐘 'kyi 'tien tsong

C. „ „ „ 'kéi 'tīm o chung

At six o'clock.

M. 六點鐘來 liu⁴ tien³ chung¹ lai²

S. 拉六點鐘 la³ lok 'tien tsong

C. 六點 luk² 'tīm

In the morning.

M. 早起 tsao³-ch'i (pron. tsao²-ch'i)

S. „ 晨 'tsau zung

C. 朝頭早個時 'chíu 't'au 'tsò ko' 'shí

At noon.

M. 晌午 shang³-wu (pron. shang¹-hu)

S. 日中 nyih tsong

C. 晏晝個時 án³ chau³ ko' 'shí

In the evening.

M. 晚上 wan³-shang⁴

S. 夜快 ya³ k'wa³

C. 挨晚個時 'ái 'mán ko' 'shí

Very early.

M. 大清早 ta⁴ ch'ing¹ tsao³

S. 老早 'lau 'tsau

C. 好 „ 'hò 'tsò

It is late.

M. 天晚了 t'ien¹ wan³ lo

S. 時候晏拉哉 z-'eu' an' la' tse

C. 係夜咯 hai² ye² lo^o

How often?

M. 多少回 to¹-shao³ hui²

S. 幾回 'kyi we

C. „ 多回 'kei to gwúi

What time is it?

M. 幾點鐘 chi³ tien³ chung, or 甚麼時候兒 shé(n)²-mo shih²-hou 'rh

S. (1) 'kyi 'tien tsong; 啥時候 sa' z-'eu'

C. 幾點鐘呀 'kéi 'tím o chung á²

WEATHER

What will the weather be to-day?

M. 今天天氣怎麼樣 chin-t'ien¹ t'ien¹-ch'i tsé(n)³-mo yang⁴

S. 今朝天氣那能 kyung tsau t'ien chi' na' nung

C. „ 日 „ 時點呢 kam yat₂ (or mat₂) t'ín gshí 'tím ni

Very fine.

M. 很晴的天 hên³ ch'ing² ti t'ien¹

S. 天晴 t'ien dzing

C. 十分好天 shap₂ fan 'hò t'ín

g g 2

Bad, cloudy, foggy weather.

M. 天氣不好 t'ien¹-ch'i pu⁴ hao³; 陰天 yin¹ t'ien¹; 下霧 hsia⁴ wu⁴

S. 天恹 t'ien cheu; (2) iung t'ien; 有霧露 'yeu 'oo' loo'

C. 唔好天 ɛm 'hò t'ín; (2) ɣam t'ín; 有雲霧 'yaú ɣwan mò²

It is snowing on the mountains.

M. 山上下雪 shan¹ shang hsia⁴ hsieh³

S. „ „ 落 „ san laung² lauh sih

C. „ „ „ „ ɣshán shǒng² lok² sūt_o

THE ROAD

Where does this road go?

M. 走這股道往那兒去 tsou³ chē⁴ ku³ tao⁴ wang³ na³
'rh ch'ü⁴

S. 第條路到那裏 dī² diau loo² tau³ 'a 'li

C. 呢 „ „ 去邊呢 ɛni ɣt'ú lò² hui² ɔpín ɛni

Does this road go to — ?

M. 走這股道往... 去麼 tsou³ chē⁴ ku³ tao⁴ wang ...
ch'ü⁴ mo

S. 第條路通到... 否 dī² diau loo² t'ong tau² ... va²

C. 呢 „ „ 係去... 唔係呢 ni ɣt'ú lò² hai² hui² ...
ɛm hai² ɛni

Which road goes to — ?

M. 上... 走那條路 shang⁴ ... tsou³ na³ t'iao lu⁴

S. 那裏一條路到... 去 'a-'li ih diau loo² tau² ... chi²

C. 邊條路去... ɔpín ɣt'ú lò² hui² ...

Which is the shortest way ?

- M. 是那條路近 shih⁴ na³ t'iao lu⁴ chin⁴
 S. 那裏一條路頂近 'a-'li ih diau loo³ 'ting 'jung
 C. 打邊條路去係至近呢 'tá opín t'íu lò² hui³ hai² .
 chí² 'k'an ,ni

Is it safe on the road ?

- M. 道路妥當不妥當 tao⁴-lu⁴ t'o³-tang¹ pu t'o³-tang¹
 S. 路上 „ „ 勿 „ „ loo³ laung³ t'oo taung³ 'veh t'oo
 taung³
 C. 呢條路有乜危險有呀 ,ni t'íu lò² 'yaú mat, ,ngai
 'hím 'mò á

How many hours is it to —— ?

- M. 上...走得幾點鐘的工夫 shang⁴ ... tsou³ tei³
 chí³ tien³ chung¹ ti kung¹-fu
 S. 到...要幾點鐘工夫 tau³ ... iau³ 'kyi 'tien tsong
 kong-foo
 C. 要幾多點鐘至行得到 ... yú² 'kéi ,to 'tím
 ,chung chí² 'háng tak, tò³ ...

Take me to ——

- M. 你帶我上 ... ni³ tai⁴ wo³ shang⁴ ...
 S. 儂領 „ 到 ... nong³ 'ling 'ngoo tau³ ...
 C. 帶我去 ... tái³ 'ngo hui³ ...

Where is there drinking water on this road ?

- M. 走這股道那兒有甜水 tsou³ che⁴ ku³ tao⁴ na³ 'rh
 yu³ t'ien² shui³
 S. 走第條路啥地方有淡水 'tseu di³ diau loo³ sa³
 di³ faung 'yeu dan 's
 C. 若運呢條路去邊處有水合人飲 yök² wan²
 ,ni t'íu lò² hui³ opín shü³ 'yaú 'shui hop² gyan 'yam

Is it only a mule road?

M. 這不過是個山道麼 chē' pu kuo' shih' ko shan'
 tao' mo

S. 第个只是一條山路否 di' kuh tsuh 'z ih diau san
 loo va'

C. 呢條路不過係合驢行咩 ni t'fú lò² pat, kwo'
 hai² hop₂ lui háng+ mé

Is it only fit for men on foot?

M. 只好人走麼 chih' hao' jēn² tsou' mo

S. 第个不過人可走否 di' kuh tsuh peh koo' nyung
 'k'au 'tseu va'

C. 不過係合人行咩 pat, kwo' hai² hop₂ yan háng+
 mé

A VILLAGE OR TOWN

What is this place called?

M. 這地名叫甚麼 chē' ti' ming² chiao' shē(n)²-mo

S. 第个地方叫啥名字 di' kuh di' faung kyau' sa'
 ming z'

C. 呢條村叫乜名呢 ni t'fú ts'ün k'ú² mat, meng²+ ni

How many houses in this village?

M. 這村裏有多少房子 chē' ts'un¹ li yu³ to¹-shao
 fang²-tzú

S. 第个村裏有幾化房子 di' kuh ts'ung 'li 'yeu 'kyi
 hau' vaung 'is

C. 呢條村有幾多(間)屋呢 ni t'fú ts'ün 'yau' 'kei to
 (kán) uk, ni

Where is the post?

M. 郵政局在那兒 (or 那裏) yu²-chēng' -chū² tsai' na³
 rh (or na³-li)

S. 郵政局拉那裏 yeu tsung' jok la' 'a 'li

C. 書信館係邊處呢 shū sun' 'kwún 'hai pín shū' ni

Show me the telegraph office.

M. 領我到電報局 ling³ wo³ tao⁴ tien⁴-pao⁴-chü²

S. " " " " " " 'ling 'ngoo tau' dien' pau' jok

C. 帶 " " " " 館 tái² 'ngo tò² tín² pò² 'kwún

Is there a telephone office here?

M. 這兒 (or 這裏) 有德律風沒有 chē⁴ 'rh (or chē-li)
yu³ tê²-lū-fēng mei² yu

S. 此地有勿有德律風 'ts' di' 'yeu 'veh 'yeu tuh lih fong

C. 呢處有德律 (or 電話) 館有呢 ɿni shü² 'yaú tak,
lut₂ (or tín² wá²) 'kwún 'mò ɿni

Where is the inn?

M. 客店在那兒 (or 那裏) k'ò⁴-tien⁴ tsai⁴ na³ 'rh (or na³-li)

S. " " 拉 " 裏 k'ak dien la' 'a 'li

C. 歇 " 係邊呢 hít₀ tím' 'hai pín ɿni

We are going to stay the night here.

M. 我們在這兒 (or 這裏) 過宿 wo³-mên tsai⁴ chē⁴ 'rh
(or chē⁴-li) kuo⁴ hsiu⁴

S. 我佢在此地過夜 'ngoo nyi' 'dze 'ts' di' koo' ya'

C. " 咁今晚係呢處歇宿 'ngo téi² ɿkam 'mán 'hai
ɿni shü' hít₀ suk,

AT A RIVER

What is this river called?

M. 這條河叫甚麼名字 chē⁴ t'iao ho² chiao⁴ shē(n)²-
mo ming²-tzǔ

S. 第條河叫啥名字 di' diau 'oo kyau' sa' ming z'

C. 呢 " " 係叫乜名 ɿni t'íú ɿho hai² kúú' mat₂ ɿmeng†

How deep is the river?

M. 那條河多深 na⁴ t'iao ho² to¹ shên¹

S. 第 „ „ 有幾化深 di² diau 'oo 'yeu 'kyi hau' sung

C. 河有幾深呢 ho 'yaú 'kéi sham ɿni

Where is the nearest bridge?

M. 最近的橋在甚麼地方 tsin⁴ chin⁴-ti ch'iao² tsai⁴
shê(n)²-mo ti⁴-fang

S. 頂近个橋拉那裏 'ting 'jung kuh jau la' 'a 'li

C. 至 „ 度 „ 係邊處呢 ch² 'k'an tò² ɿ'fú 'hai ɿpín
shü² ɿni

Take me there.

M. 領我到這個橋 ling³ wo³ tao⁴ chē⁴-ko ch'iao²

S. „ „ 去 'ling 'ngoo chi²

C. 帶 „ „ 個處 tái² 'ngo hui² ko' shü²

Show me the nearest ferry.

M. 你領我到最近的擺渡口兒 ni³ ling³ wo³ tao⁴
tsui⁴ chin⁴ ti pai³-tu⁴ k'ou³-rh

S. 領我到頂近个擺渡口 'ling 'ngoo tau² 'ting 'jung
kuh 'pa doo² 'keu

C. 指路去至近橫水渡個處 'chí lò² hui² ch² 'k'an
ɿwáng 'shui tò²* ko' shü²

Get hold of a boat (canoe).

M. 拿船來 na² ch'uan² lai²

S. „ „ „ nau zen le

C. 搵隻小艇嚟 'wan chek, 'sú 't'eng† ɿlai

Is there a raft here?

M. 這兒 (or 這裏) 有木排沒有 chē⁴ 'rh (or chē⁴-li)
yu³ mu⁴-p'ai² mei² yu

S. 此地有勿有木排 'ts' di² 'yeh 'veh 'yeu mok ba

C. 呢處 „ 木排有呀 ɿni shü² 'yaú muk ɿp'ái 'mò á²

Is the current strong?

M. 水流得快麼 shui³ liu² tê k'uai⁴ mo

S. " " " 急 " 's lieu tuh kyih ma

C. " " 緊唔緊呢 'shui ǵlau 'kan ǵm 'kan ǵni

Take us across.

M. 擺我們過去 pai³ wo³-mên kuo⁴ ch'ü⁴

S. " " 佢過去 'pa 'ngoo nyi² koo³ chi²

C. 撐 " 咁 " " ǵch'áng 'ngo téi² kwo³ hui²

Where is the easiest place to swim across?

M. 浮水過河是那個地方好 fu² shui³ kuo⁴ ho²
shih⁴ na³-ko ti⁴-fang hao³

S. 啥地方頂便當游水過去 sa² di² faung 'ting bien²
taung² yeu 's koo³ chi²

C. 想泅過河邊處至易呢 'sǝng ǵyáu kwo² ǵho ǵpin
shü² chf² yf² ǵni?

You will be rewarded.

M. 有賞錢 yu³ shang³ ch'ien²

S. " " 賜 'yeu 'saung s'

C. " " " 俾你 ǵyáu 'shǝng ts'z' 'péi 'néi

You must go in front of me.

M. 你得頭裏走 ni³ tei³ t'ou²-li tsou³

S. 儂必定我前走 nong² pih ding ngoo² zien 'tseu

C. 你係我前頭行 'néi 'hai 'ngo ǵts'ín ǵt'áu ǵháng

What place lies on the other side?

M. 河那邊有甚麼地方 ho² na⁴ pien¹ yu³ shê(n)²-mo
ti⁴-fang

S. 河對面有嗰個地方 'oo te² mien 'yeu sa² kuh di²
faung

C. 河個便有邊處呢 ǵho kò² pín² ǵyáu ǵpín sh'ü² ǵni

Is it far to the mouth?

M. 河口遠不遠 ho² k'ou³ yüan³ pu yüan³

S. " " " 勿 " 'oo k'eu 'yoen 'veh 'yoen

C. " " " 唔 " 呢 ho 'haú 'yün m 'yün ni

A MOUNTAIN OR HILL

What is the big mountain called?

M. 大山叫甚麼名字 ta⁴ shan¹ chiao⁴ shê(n)²-mo ming²-tzu

S. 大山叫啥 doo³ san kyau³ sa³

C. 個大山叫做乜名 ko³ tái² shán kú³ tsò³ mat, mēng³ +

How high is the mountain?

M. 這山多高 chē⁴ shan¹ to¹ kao¹

S. 第个山有幾化高 dī² kuh san 'yeu 'kyi hau³ kau

C. 個山有幾高呢 ko³ shán 'yaú 'kéi kò ni

What is the easiest way up the hill?

M. 登山是那個道好 tēng¹ shan¹ shih⁴ na³-ko tao⁴ hao³

S. 那裏一條路好用上山 'a-'li ih diau loo³ 'hau yong³ 'zaung san

C. 想上山邊條路係至易呢 'söng 'shöng shán pín
t'íú lò² hai² chí² yí² ni

Can the guns be got up?

M. 炮拉得上去麼 p'ao⁴ la¹ te shang⁴ ch'ü⁴ mo

S. " " " " 否 p'au³ 'la tuh 'zaung chí³ va³

C. " " " " 唔拉得呢 p'áu³ lái tak, 'shöng m lái tak, ni

Yes, but they cannot be got down on the other side.

M. 拉得去, 可那邊下不去 la¹ tê ch'ü⁴, k'o³ na⁴ pien¹
hsia⁴ pu ch'ü⁴

S. 可以个但是別邊勿能下去 'k'au 'i kuh, dan'
'z bih pien 'veh nung 'au chi'

C. 做得但係啲便唔拉得落 tsò² tak, tán² hai²
'ko pín² ɿm lái tak, lok₂

Isn't it very steep?

M. 山坡不闌麼 shan¹ p'o¹ pu ch'uang³ mo

S. „ 極斜否 san juh zia va'

C. 係好 „ 咁厚哇 hai² 'hò ts'e' lá' kwá'

Isn't it dangerous?

M. 沒有險麼 mei² yu hsien³ mo

S. 有險呢 yeu 'hyien nyi

C. 係危險哇 hai² ɿngai 'hím kwá'

Can one get up on horseback?

M. 騎馬上得去麼 ch'í² ma³ shang⁴ tê ch'ü⁴ mo

S. 可以騎馬上去否 'k'au 'i ji 'mo 'zaung chi' va'

C. 騎馬上得唔上得呢 k'e 'má 'shǒng tak, ɿm 'shǒng
tak, ɿni

Are there several ways down?

M. 下去有幾條道 hsia⁴ ch'ü⁴ yu³ chi³ t'iao² tao⁴

S. „ „ „ „ „ 路 'au chi' 'yeu 'kyi diau loo'

C. 有幾條路落去係唔係 'yau 'kéi ɿ'fú lò² lok₂ hui²,
hai² ɿm hai²

Are there any thieves about?

M. 這兒有賊沒有 chē⁴ 'rh yu³ tsei² mei² yu

S. 有冇 „ „ 呢 'yeu 'veh 'yeu zuh nyi

C. 在呢處地方左右有賊有呀 tsoi² ɿni shü³ téi²
ɿong 'tso yaú² 'yau ts'ák₂ (or ts'ák₂ *) 'mo á²

A FOREST

How big is the forest?

- M. 那樹林子多大 na⁴ shu⁴ lin²-tzǔ to¹ ta
 S. 樹林有幾化 „ zu² ling 'yeu 'kyi hau' doo'
 C. 個樹林有幾 „ 呢 ko² shǔ² lam 'yaú 'kéi tái² ɿni

How wide is it?

- M. 多寬 to¹ k'uan¹
 S. 幾化濶 'kyi hau' k'weh
 C. 有幾 „ 呢 'yaú 'kéi fút_o ɿni

Where does the road go through the forest?

- M. 那道在甚麼地方穿過樹林子 na⁴ tao⁴ tsai⁴
 shé(n)²-mo ti⁴-fang ch'uan¹ kuo⁴ shu⁴ lin²-tzǔ
 S. 路那裏過樹林 loo² 'a 'li koo² zu² ling
 C. „ 通樹林邊處 lǝ² t'ung shǔ² lam ɿpín shǔ²

Can mounted troops get through the forest?

- M. 馬兵穿過那個樹林子行不行 ma³ ping¹
 ch'uan¹ kuo⁴ na⁴-ko shu⁴ lin²-tzǔ hsing² pu hsing²
 S. 馬兵可以穿過第樹林否 'mo ping 'k'au 'i ts'en
 koo² di² zu² ling va²
 C. 馬兵通得過樹林唔通得過呢 'má ɿping
 t'ung tak, kwo² shǔ² lam ɿm t'ung tak, kwo² ɿni

Yes, but I don't think one can get through with the guns.

- M. 行, 據我看炮可不行 hsing², chǔ⁴ wo³ k'an⁴ p'ao⁴
 k'o³ pu hsing²
 S. 可以但是我想炮就過勿去 'k'au 'i, dan' 'z
 'ngoo 'siang p'au' zieu' koo' 'veh chí'
 C. 通得過但我斷估炮不得過 t'ung tak, kwo²,
 tán² 'ngo tǔn' 'kwú p'áu' pat, tak, kwo²

RAILWAY STATION

Is it far to the railway?

M. 鐵路遠不遠 t'ieh³ lu⁴ yüan³ pu yüan³

S. „ „ „ 勿 „ t'ih loo' 'yoen 'veh 'yoen

C. 去火車路個處遠唔遠呀 hui' 'fo ɕh'é lè² ko'
shü' 'yün ɕm 'yün á²

Only half an hour.

M. 不過半點鐘的道 pu⁴ kuo⁴ pan⁴ tien³ chung¹ ti tao⁴

S. „ „ „ „ „ 个路 peh koo' pen' 'tien tsong kuh loo'

C. „ „ „ „ „ 就到咯 pat, kwo' pún' 't'fm ɕchung
tsau² tò' lok^o.

When does the train arrive?

M. 火車多啱到 huo³ ch'ê¹ to¹-tsan tao⁴

S. „ „ 啥時候到 'hoo ts'ó sa' z-'eu' tau'

C. „ „ 幾 „ 到呢 'fo ɕh'é 'kéi ɕshí tò' ɕni

When does the train go to — ?

M. 火車甚麼時候兒上 . . . huo³ ch'ê¹ shê(n)²-mo
shih²-hou⁴ 'rh shang . . .

S. 火車幾時開到 . . . 去 'hoo ts'ó 'kyi z k'é tau' . . .
chí'

C. 火車幾時去 . . . 'fo ɕh'é 'kéi ɕshí hui' . . .

Where is the next train coming from?

M. 下輪火車打那兒來 hsia⁴ t'ang⁴ huo³ ch'ê¹ ta³
na³-rh lai²

S. 下輪火車從啥地方來 'au t'aung 'hoo ts'ó
dzong sa' di' faung le

C. 就將來到嘅火車由邊處嚟呢 tsaú² ɕtsöng
ɕloi tò' ke' 'fo ɕh'é ɕyau pin shü' ɕlai ɕni

Stop the train !

M. 叫火車站住 chiao⁴ huo³ ch'ê¹ chan⁴ chu⁴

S. „ „ „ 停哉 kyau³ 'hoo ts'o ding tse

C. 停止火車 t'ing 'chí 'fo 'ch'e

Get me a porter.

M. 叫腳夫來 chiao⁴ chiao³ fu lai²

S. 喊挑 „ „ han³ t'iau foo le

C. 叫個挑夫嚟 kú³ ko³ t'í³ fú³ lai

What is the fare ?

M. 車價多少 ch'ê¹ chia⁴ to¹-shao³

S. „ 費幾化 ts'o fi³ 'kyi hau³

C. 火車脚係幾多呢 'fo 'ch'e kok³ hai² 'kéi³ to³ ni

Where is my luggage ?

M. 我的行李在那兒 wo³ ti hsing²-li tsai⁴ na³ 'rh

S. „ 个 „ „ 拉 „ 裏 'ngoo kuh 'ang 'li la³ 'a 'li

C. 我啲行李呢 'ngo ti 'hang 'léi³ ni

INQUIRIES ABOUT TROOPS

Have you seen our troops ?

M. 我們的兵你看見了沒有 wo³-mên¹ ti ping¹
ni³ k'an⁴-chien lo mei² yu

S. 我呢个兵儂看見否 'ngoo nyi kuh ping nong³
k'oén³ kyien³ va³

C. 你見我哋嘅兵唔見呀 'néi kín³ 'ngo téi² ke³
ping³ m kín³ á³

Do you know where the troops are ?

M. 兵在那兒你知道不知道 ping¹ tsai⁴ na³ 'rh,
ni³ chih¹-tao pu chih¹-tao⁴

S. 兵丁儂曉得拉那裏 ping ting nong' a 'hyau tuh
la' 'a 'li

C. 你知個啲兵係邊處知唔知呀 néi chí
ko' tí ping 'hai pín shū' chí m chí á'

Yes, I saw them by the wood.

M. 知道, 樹林子旁邊看見了 chih¹-tao, shu⁴ lin²-
tzu p'ang² pien¹ k'an⁴-chien lo

S. 曉得個我看見伊拉在樹林旁邊 'hyau
tuh kuh 'ngoo k'o'en' kyien' yi la' 'dze zu' ling baung pien

C. 知到, 我見佢哋係樹林邊 chí tò', 'ngo kín'
k'ui téi² 'hai shū² lam pín

What sort of troops, and how many are they?

M. 甚麼樣兒的兵, 有多少 shê(n)²-mo yang⁴ 'rh ti
ping¹, yu³ to¹-shao³

S. 兵丁啥樣子, 有幾化 ping ting sa' yang 'ts, 'yeu
'kyi hau'

C. 乜野兵呢有幾多呢 mat, 'ye ping ni, 'yau² 'kéi
to ni

Five thousand, with cavalry and guns.

M. 五千, 連馬兵帶炮 wu³ ch'ien¹, lien² ma³ ping¹ tai⁴
p'ao⁴

S. „ „ „ „ „ „ „ 'ng ts'ien, lien 'mo ping ta' p'au'

C. „ „ „ 又有馬兵, 又有炮添 'ng ts'in, yau² 'yau²
'ma ping, yau² 'yau p'áu' t'im

Since when are they there?

M. 兵多啱到那兒 ping¹ to¹-tsan tao⁴ na' 'rh

S. 伊拉幾時到 yi la' kyi z tau'

C. 自從 „ „ 佢哋係係個處 tsz² ts'ung 'kéi
shí k'ui téi² hai² 'hai kò' shū'

In which direction have they marched?

M. 兵向那裏走了 ping¹ hsiang⁴ na³ li tsou³ lo

S. „ 走到那裏路 ping 'tseu tau' 'a 'li loo'

C. 佢哋向邊頭行軍呢 ʔk'ui téi² hōng' ɔpín ɿ'au¹
hang kwan ɿni

Where is an officer?

M. 帶兵的官在那兒 tai⁴ ping¹ ti kuan¹ tsai⁴ na³ 'rh

S. 兵官拉啥地方 ping kwen la³ sa³ di³ faung

C. 邊處有個武官呢 ɔpín shü³ 'yaú ko³ 'mò k'wun ɿni

Take me to the Colonel.

M. 領我見協臺 ling³ wo³ chien⁴ hsieh²-t'ai

S. „ „ „ „ „ 'ling 'ngoo kyien' sich de

C. 帶 „ 去見參將 tái³ 'ngo hui³ kín' ɿ'ám tsōng'

I have a letter from our General.

M. 我帶我們總兵的信 wo³ tai⁴ wo³-mên tsung³-
ping¹ ti hsin⁴

S. „ „ „ 佢 „ „ 个 „ „ 'ngoo ta³ 'ngoo nyi 'tsong
ping kuh sing'

C. 我有一封信係我哋嘅將軍寫嚟嘅
'ngo 'yaú yat, fung sun' hai² 'ngo téi² ke' tsōng k'wan 'se lai ke'

FOOD AND DRINK

I am hungry, I wish to eat.

M. 我餓了, 要吃 wo³ ê⁴ lo, yao⁴ ch'ih¹

S. „ „ 哉 „ „ 飯 'ngoo ngoo' tse, iau' chuh van'

C. „ 肚餓 „ 食呀 'ngo ɿ'ò ngo², yú² shik² á'

I am thirsty, I wish to drink.

M. 我渴了, 要喝 wo³ k'ê³ lo, yao⁴ ho¹

S. „ 口乾哉, 要啱 'ngoo 'k'eu koen tse, iau' hah

C. 我頸渴想飲 'ngo 'keng[†] hot² 'sōng 'yam

Where can I get food ?

M. 飯那兒找 fan⁴ na³ 'rh chao³

S. 啥地方有飯 sa² di² faung 'yeu van²

C. 邊處有食物 o²pín shū² 'yaú shik₂ mat,

Innkeeper, we want a meal.

M. 掌櫃的, 我們要飯 chang³ kuei⁴ ti, wo³-mên yao⁴ fan⁴

S. 僮倌, 我佢要飯 daung kwen, 'ngoo nyi iau² van²

C. 店主我哋想食一餐 'tím 'chū, 'ngo téi² 'sōng shik₂
yat, ts'án

Give me something to drink.

M. 給我喝 kei³ wo³ ho¹

S. 撥點我啲 peh dien 'ngoo hah

C. 俾野 „ 飲 'péi 'syé 'ngo 'yam

Hurry up, we haven't much time.

M. 快快我們忙 k'uai⁴ k'uai⁴, wo³-mên mang²

S. „ 來 „ 佢勿要費工夫 kw'a² le, 'ngoo nyi veh
iau² fi² kong foo

C. 快啲, 我哋唔得閒 fái² o²ti, 'ngo téi² 'm tak, 'hán

I am going to pay for it.

M. 我給錢 wo³ kei³ ch'ien²

S. „ 出 „ 'ngoo ts'eh dien

C. „ 俾 „ 呀 'ngo 'péi ts'in² * á²

Have you enough for all my men ?

M. 我們的人都要吃, 飯穀不穀 wo³-mên¹ ti jên²
tou¹ yao⁴ ch'ih¹, fan⁴ kou⁴ pu kou⁴

S. 我佢個個人要吃, 飯阿穀 'ngoo nyi kuh kuh
nyung iau² chuh, van² a keu²

C. 够俾我咁多人食唔够呢 káu² 'péi 'ngo kom²
to 'yan shik₂ 'm káu² 'ni

Is the water good here ?

M. 這兒水好麼 chē⁴ 'rh shui³ hao³ mo

S. 水拉此地是好吃否 's la³ 'ts' di³ 'z 'hau chuh va³

C. 呢處個啲水好唔好呀 ɲi shū³ ko³ ɔti 'shui 'hò
ɲm 'hò á³

Have you any fresh eggs ?

M. 有新鮮雞蛋沒有 yu³ hsin¹ hsien¹ chi¹-tan⁴ mei² yu

S. 鮮鮮雞蛋儂有勿有 sien sien kyi dan³ nong³ 'yeu
'veh 'yeu

C. 有新鮮蛋有呀 'yaú ɲan ɲín tán²* 'mò á³

Bring bread, ham, and cheese.

M. 拿麵包火腿帶奶餅來 na² mien⁴-pao¹, huo³-t'ui³
tai⁴ nai³-ping³ lai

S. 拿麵包火腿帶奶餅來 nau mien³ pau, 'hoo 't'e
ta³ 'na 'ping le

C. 擰麵包火腿枝士嚟 'ning mín² ɔpáu, 'fo t'ui³* , ɔchi
sz²* ɲai

Bring some tea.

M. 拿茶來 na² ch'a² lai²

S. „ „ „ nau dzo le

C. 擰啲茶嚟 ɲing ɔti ɲch'á ɲlai

Bring us the bill.

M. 拿賬來 na² chang⁴ lai²

S. „ „ „ nau tsang le

C. 擰條單嚟喇 ɲing ɛ'tú ɔtán ɲlai ɲlá

How much do we owe ?

M. 我們該多少錢 wo³-mên kai¹ to¹-shao³ ch'ien²

S. „ 佢 „ 出幾化錢 'ngoo nyi ke ts'eh 'kyi hau³ dien

C. „ 咁欠幾多呢 'ngo téi² hím³ 'kéi ɔto ɲi

How much does this cost ?

M. 價錢多少 chia⁴-ch'ien to¹-shao³

S. 啥價錢 sa³ ka³ dien

C. 呢啲係幾多價錢呢 ɲi ɔti hai² 'kéi ɔto ká³ ɟs'in
ɲi

BILLETS, LODGING AND STABLING

I want quarters for fifty men.

M. 我要屋子殼五十人住 wo³ yao⁴ wu¹-tzũ kou⁴
wu³ shih³ jên² chu⁴

S. 我要殼五十個人住个房子 'ngoo iau³ keu³
'ng seh kuh nyung dzu³ kuh vaung-ɟs

C. 我要地方俾五十人投宿 'ngo yíú³ téi² ɟong
'péi 'ng shap² ɟyan ɟ'áu suk,

Give me better quarters.

M. 這屋子不好, 給我找好的 ché⁴ wu¹-tzũ pu
hao³, kei³ wo³ chao³ hao³ ti

S. 我要好點个房子 'ngoo iau³ 'hau 'tien kuh vaung-ɟs

C. 俾好啲地方 'péi 'hò ɔti téi² ɟong

Have you found me quarters yet ?

M. 還沒給我找屋子麼 hai² mei² kei³ wo³ chao³ wu¹-
tzũ mo

S. 我个房子尋着否 'ngoo kuh vaung-ɟs zing dzak va³

C. 搵倒地方俾我哋人投宿未呀 'wan 'tò
téi² ɟong 'péi 'ngo téi² ɟyan ɟ'áu suk, méi² á²

Where is the owner of the house ?

M. 房主在那裏 fang² chu³ tsai⁴ na³ li

S. „ 東拉 „ „ vaung tong la³ 'a 'li

C. 屋主係邊處呢 uk, 'chũ 'hai ɔpín shũ³ ɲi
H h 2

Light the fire, please.

M. 請點火 ch'ing³ tien³ huo³

S. „ 生 „ 'ts'ing sang 'hoo

C. 唔該你透火爐 ɿm ɿkoi 'néi t'áu' 'fo ɿlò

I want stabling for sixteen horses.

M. 我要馬房殼拴十六匹馬 wo³ yao⁴ ma³-fang²
kou⁴ shuan¹ shih liu⁴ p'i¹ ma³

S. 我要好歇十六匹馬个馬棚 'ngoo iau³ 'hau
hyih seh lok p'ih 'mo kuh 'mo bang

C. 我有十六隻馬, 我要馬房咁多隻够使
'ngo 'yaú shap₂ luk₂ chek₀ 'má, 'ngo yíú' 'má ɿfong kom' ɿto
chek₀ kau' 'shai

Thanks, we want nothing more.

M. 費心, 我們再不要甚麼 fei⁴ hsin¹, wo³-mên tsai⁴
pu yao⁴ shê(n)²-mo

S. 費心, 我佢勿要啥哉 fi² sing, 'ngoo nyi' 'veh iau³
sa' tse

C. 多謝, 有第二樣野要咯 ɿto tse², 'mò tai² yf² yǒng²
'ye yíú' lok.

Tell all people not to be afraid.

M. 叫衆人都不要怕 chiao⁴ chung⁴ jên² tou¹ pu yao⁴
p'a⁴

S. „ 大家勿要怕 kyau² doo² kya 'veh iau³ p'o²

C. 講各人聽唔使慌 'kong kok₀ ɿyan ɿt'eng + ɿm 'shai
ɿfong

Where is there some clean water?

M. 那兒有乾淨水 na³ 'rh yu³ kan¹-ching⁴ shui³

S. 啥地方有清 „ sa' di' faung 'yeu ts'ing 's

C. 邊處有乾淨 „ 呢 ɿpín shí' 'yaú ɿkon tseng² + 'shui
ɿni

Clear those houses; we are going to quarter our men in them.

M. 騰那些房子,我們的人要住 t'êng² na⁴ hsieh¹
fang²-tzu³, wo³-mên ti jên² yao⁴ chu⁴

S. 出清伊个房子,我佢个人要住 ts'eh ts'ing
yi kuh vaung-ts, 'ngoo nyi¹ kuh nyung iau¹ dzu¹

C. 令個啲屋出清人物,俾我啲人係處
歇宿 ling² ko³ ti uk, ch'ut, ts'ing yau mat², 'péi 'ngo ti
yan 'hai shü¹ hít, suk,

Have you smallpox in this village?

M. 這村裏有出痘子的麼 ch'ê⁴ ts'un¹ li yu³ ch'u¹
tou⁴-tzu³ ti mo

S. 第个村裡有冇有人出天花 dī² kuh 'ts'ung
'li 'yeu 'veh 'yeu nyung t'ien hwo

C. 呢條村有出痘病症有呀 ni t'í² 'fú ts'ün 'yau¹
ch'ut, tau²* peng²+ ching² 'mò á²

Tell me the house where there are sick men.

M. 那個房子裏有病人你給我指出來
na³-ko fang²-tzu³ li yu³ ping⁴ jên² ni³ kei³ wo³ chih³ ch'u¹ lai²

S. 指點我看嗰个房子有生病的人 ts' tien
'ngoo k'oen' sa¹ kuh vaung 'ts 'yeu sang bing¹ nyung

C. 話我知邊間屋係有病人 wá² 'ngo chí¹ pín
kán uk, hai² 'yau peng²+ yau

Is it feverish here?

M. 這個地方有甚麼熱病 ch'ê⁴-ko ti⁴-fang yu³
shên²-mo jê⁴ ping⁴

S. 此地有嗰熱病否 ts' dī² 'yeu sa² nyih bing va¹

C. 呢處地方時常係有多熱症係唔係呀
ni shü¹ téi² fong shí² shōng hai² 'yau to yit² ching² hai² m
hai² á²

Is it healthy here ?

M. 這兒水土不損精神麼 chē⁴ 'rh shui³-t'u³ pu⁴
sun³ ching¹-shên mo

S. 此地水土傷精神否 'ts' di' 's 't'oo saung tsing-
zung va³

C. 呢處係衛身嘅地方唔係呢 ɲi shü' hai² wai²
shan ke' téi² song ɲm hai² ɲi

STRANGERS OR SUSPECTS

Stop! or I shall shoot.

M. 站住, 不然我打鎗 chan⁴ chu⁴, pu⁴ jan² wo³ ta³ ch'iang¹

S. 立定, „ 立定我就開鎗 lih ding³, veh lih ding³ 'ngoo
zieu³ k'e ts'iang

C. 停止, 唔係我開鎗彈 (or 打) 你 t'ing 'chí, ɲm hai²
ngo hoi ts'öng tán² (or 'tá) 'néi

Don't move from the spot.

M. 別動窩兒 pieh² tung⁴ wo¹ 'rh

S. 勿要移動 'veh iau³ hyi 'dong

C. 企處咪郁 k'ei shü' 'mai yuk,

Stand a little farther off.

M. 遠着點兒 yüan³ cho tie(n)³ 'rh

S. 立遠點 lih 'yoen 'tien

C. 企開啲 k'ei hoi ti

Come closer.

M. 來近點兒 lai² chin⁴ tie(n)³ 'rh

S. 走 „ „ 'tseu jung 'tien

C. 行埋啲 háng† mái ti

You are trying to deceive me.

M. 你要欺哄我 *ni³ yao⁴ ch'i¹-hung wo³*

S. 儂 „ „ 騙 „ *nong² iau² chi p'ien² 'ngoo*

C. 你想噤 (or 欺騙) 我 *'nei² 'sǒng t'am² (or 'héi p'in²) 'ngo*

You are lying!

M. 你撒謊 *ni³ sa¹-huang³*

S. 儂說 „ *nong² soeh 'hwaung*

C. 你講大話 *'nei² 'kong tái² wá²*

You are a spy!

M. 你是個奸細 *ni³ shih⁴ ko chien¹-hsi⁴*

S. 儂 „ 个 „ „ *nong² 'z kuh kan si²*

C. 你係做探子 *'nei² hai² tsò² t'am² 'tsz (or 線人 sín² 'yan)*

Turn round.

M. 轉身 *chuan³ shên¹*

S. „ „ *'tsen sung*

C. 掙轉 *ning² chün²*

Hands up!

M. 舉手 *chū³ shou³*

S. 掙 „ *jen 'seu*

C. 舉 „ *'kui 'shaú*

Put down your arms.

M. 兵器擱地下 *ping¹-ch'i⁴ ko¹ ti⁴-hsia⁴*

S. 放下兵器來 *faung² 'au ping chi² le*

C. 放落你啲軍器 *fong² lok² 'nei² 'tí kwan héi²*

Surrender.

M. 投降 *t'ou² hsiang²*

S. „ „ *deu 'aung*

C. „ „ *'t'au hong*

You may not talk to any one.

M. 你別跟誰說話 *ni³ pieh² kên¹ shui² shuo¹ hua⁴*

S. 勿許儂搭別人白話 *'veh 'hyui nong² tah pih nyung bak wo²*

C. 唔准你同人哋講說話 *ɿm 'chun 'néi t'ung ɿyan téi² 'kong shut, wá²*

You are under arrest.

M. 現在看守你 *hsien⁴ tsai⁴ k'an⁴ shou³ ni³*

S. 儂是 „ 管住哉 *nong² 'z k'o'en² 'kwen dzu² tse*

C. 現時押留你咯 *yín² ɿshí áp, ɿlau 'néi lok.*

Take off your belt,

M. 你脫帶子 *ni³ t'o¹ tai⁴-tzũ*

S. 脫下 „ „ 來 *t'eh 'au ta²-ts le*

C. 除你個腰帶 *ɿch'ui 'néi ko² yú tái²*

If you behave, you will be safe.

M. 你若守規矩, 沒有可怕 *ni jo⁴ shou³ kuei¹-chü, mei² yu³ k'o³ p'a⁴*

S. 儂若使照規矩做, 就勿要怕 *nong² zak s³ tsau² kwe 'kyui tsoo², zieu² 'veh iau² p'o*

C. 如果你嘅行為係妥當, 咁就有事咯 *ɿkwo 'néi ke² ɿhang ɿwai hai² t'o tong², 'kom tsau² 'mò sz² lok.*

WOUNDS OR SICKNESS

Do you feel better?

M. 你覺着好麼 *ni³ chüeh² cho hao³ mo*

S. 儂阿覺着好點 *nong² a kauh dzak 'hau 'tien*

C. 你見好啲嗎 *'néi kín² 'hò ɿtí má²*

Do you feel worse?

M. 你更不好麼 *ni³ kêng⁴ pu hao³ mo*

S. 儂 „ 加勿好否 *nong² kung² ka 'veh 'hau va²*

C. 你見身子有咁好咩 *‘néi kfn’ ,shan ‘tsz ‘mò kom’
‘hò ,me*

What is the matter?

M. 你怎麼了 *ni³ tsé(n)³-mo lo*

S. 有啥事體 *yeu sa² z² ‘t’i*

C. 乜野事呢 *mat, ‘ye sz² ,ni*

I am wounded.

M. 我受了傷 *wo³ shou⁴ lo shang¹*

S. „ „ 傷哉 *‘ngoo ‘zeu saung tse*

C. „ 打 „ 咯 *‘ngo ‘tá ,shōng lok^o .*

Sit down, lie down.

M. 坐下, 躺下 *tso⁴ hsia⁴, t’ang³ hsia⁴*

S. „ „ 來, 睏下來 *‘zoo ‘au le, k’wung² ‘au le*

C. „ 處, 瞓倒處 *‘ts’o+ shü², fan² ‘tò shü²*

Undress yourself.

M. 脫衣裳 *t’o¹ i¹-shang*

S. „ „ „ t’oeh i-zaung

C. „ 衫褲 *t’üt^o ,shám fú²*

Give me water.

M. 給我水喝 *kei³ wo³ shui³ ho¹*

S. 撥點 „ 我呷 *peh ‘tien ‘s ‘ngoo hah*

C. 俾啲 „ „ ‘péi ,tí ‘shui ‘ngo

Here is water and brandy.

- M. 這兒有水跟布蘭的酒 chē' 'rh yu' shui' kēn'
 pu' lan'-ti chiu'
 S. 此地有水搭白蘭地酒 'ts'-di' 'yeu 's tah beh-
 lan-di 'tsieu
 C. 呢處有水, 有罷欄地酒 ,ni shū' 'yaú 'shui, 'yaú
 pá' ,lán téi' ,tsau

Give me a bandage.

- M. 把裏布給我 pa' kuo'-pu' kei' wo'
 S. 撥一長布我 peh ih dzang poo' 'ngoo
 C. 俾條綑帶過我 'péi t'íú ,máng tái' 'kwo 'ngo

Help me with the bandaging.

- M. 你幫我裏一裏 ni' pang' wo' kuo' i' kuo'
 S. 幫我包一包 paung 'ngoo pau ih pau
 C. 你幫我扎呢啲綑帶 'néi ,pong 'ngo chát, ,ni ,ti
 ,máng tái'

Where are you wounded?

- M. 你在那兒受傷 ni' tsai' na' 'rh shou' shang'
 S. 儂拉 „ 裏 „ „ nong' la' 'a 'li 'zeu saung
 C. 你傷親邊處 'néi ,shōng ,ts'an ,pín shū'

In the arm, the back.

- M. 在肱臂; 在背後 tsai' ko'-pei; tsai' pei' hou'
 S. 拉手臂上, 拉背上 la' 'seu pi' laung'; la' pe' laung'
 C. (upper arm) 在手臂 tsoi' 'sháu péi'; (fore arm) 在手肘
 tsoi' 'sháu 'cháu; (the back) 在背脊 tsoi' pui' tsek,†

Keep quiet.

- M. 你安靜點兒 ni' an'-ching tie(n)' 'rh
 S. 勿要響, 勿要動 'veh iau' 'hyang, 'veh iau' 'dong
 C. 咪嘈 ,mai ,ts'ò; 咪出聲 ,mai ch'ut, ,sheng†

You mustn't speak.

M. 你別說話 *ni³ pieh² shuo¹ hua*

S. 一定勿 „ *ih ding² 'veh wo²*

C. 咪講 *mai² kong²*; 唔准你講說話 *am² 'chun² nei² kong² shüt₀ wá²*

Go to the doctor and tell him to come at once.

M. 找大夫請他馬上來 *chao³ tai¹-fu ch'ing³ t'a¹ ma³-shang⁴ lai*

S. 去請郎中 (or 醫生) 立刻就來 *chi² 'ts'ing laung-tsong (or i-sung) lih k'uh zieu² le*

C. 去叫醫生即刻嚟 *hui² kíú² yí sháng⁺ tsík, hak, láí*

Take this medicine.

M. 你吃這藥 *ni³ ch'ih¹ ché⁴ yao⁴*

S. 儂 „ 第个藥 *nong² chuh di² kuh yak*

C. 食呢啲藥 *shik₂ ní₀ ti yök₂*

Take this man to hospital.

M. 帶這個人上病房 *tai⁴ ché⁴-ko jên² shang⁴ ping⁴ fang²*

S. 送第个 „ 到醫院去 *song² di² kuh nyung tau² i yoen² chí²*

C. 帶呢個人去醫生館 *tái² ní₀ ko² yan hui² yí sháng⁺ 'kwún*

GENERAL PHRASES

Good night, madam.

M. 太太再見 *t'ai⁴-t'ai⁴ tsai⁴ chien⁴*

S. „ „ 明朝會 *t'a²-t'a² ming tsau we²*

C. 早睡奶奶 *tsò shui² nái₂ nái₂ **

Good morning, madam.

M. 太太好 t'ai⁴-t'ai⁴ hao³

S. „ „ 早 t'a²-t'a² 'tsau

C. 早晨師奶 (or 奶奶) 'tsò ʃhan ʃsz ɔ́.nái (or ɔ́.nái ɔ́.nái *)

Good morning, sir.

M. 老爺好 lao³-yeh² hao³

S. 先生早 sien-sang 'tsau

C. 早晨先生 'tsò ʃhan ʃín ʃháng†

How are you?

M. 你好麼 ni³ hao³ mo

S. 儂 „ 否 nong³ 'hau va²

C. 你 „ 呀 'néi 'hò á²

I am sorry.

M. 得罪了怨 tê² tsui⁴ lo nin²

S. 對勿起 te² 'veh 'chi

C. 唔該呀 ɛ́m koi á²

What is the news?

M. 有甚麼新聞 yu³ shê(n)²-mo hsin¹ wên²

S. „ 啥新聞 'yeu sa² sing vung

C. „ 乜 „ „ 呢 'yaú mat, ʃan ɛ́man* ɛ́ni

Do you know English?

M. 英國話你懂不懂 ying¹-kuo hua⁴ ni tung³ pu tung³

S. „ „ „ 儂 „ 勿 „ iung-kok wo² nong² 'tong 'veh 'tong

C. 你識英話唔識呢 'néi shik, ying wá²* ɛ́m shik, ɛ́ni

Speak slowly.

M. 說慢點兒 shuo¹ man⁴ tie(n)³ 'rh

S. 慢 „ 話 man² man² wo²

C. „ „ 講 mán² mán²* 'kong

Please.

M. 請 ch'ing³

S. „ 'ts'ing

C. 多煩你 to fan 'néi

Thank you.

M. 多謝 to¹ hsieh⁴; 費心 fei⁴ hsin¹; 勞駕 lao² chia⁴

S. „ „ too zia³; „ „ fi² sing

C. „ „ 你 to tse³ 'néi

Do you understand?

M. 你懂不懂 ni³ tung³ pu tung³

S. 儂懂否 nong² 'tong va²

C. 你曉唔曉呢 'néi 'híu m 'híu ni

I don't understand.

M. 我不懂 wo³ pu tung³

S. „ 勿 „ 'ngoo 'veh 'tong

C. „ 唔曉 (or 明白) 'ngo m 'híu (or ming pák₂)

All right.

M. 可以 k'o³-i³; 好 hao³

S. „ „ 'k'au-i; „ 'hau

C. 啱咁 ngám sai²

There is no news.

M. 沒甚麼信息 mei² shê(n)²-mo hsin⁴ hsi

S. 姆啥信息 m sa² sing² sih

C. 有新聞 mò san man *

How do you know?

M. 你怎麼知道 ni³ tsê(n)³-mo chih¹-tao⁴

S. 儂那能曉得 nong² na nung 'hyau tuh

C. 你點知 'néi 'tím chí

It is false.

M. 是假的 shih⁴ chia³ ti

S. „ „ 个 'z 'ka kuh

C. 係 „ hai² 'ká

I am glad.

M. 我很喜歡 wo³ hên³ hsi³ huan¹

S. „ 極 „ „ 'ngoo juh 'hyi hwen

C. „ 歡 „ 'ngo 'fún 'héi

Possible.

M. 行 hsing²; 可以 k'o³-i³

S. 能 穀 nung keu³; (z) 'k'au-'i

C. 可以 (做) 得 'ho 'yí (tsò²) tak,

Rain threatens.

M. 要下雨 yao⁴ hsia⁴ yü³

S. „ 落 „ 哉 iau³ lauh 'yui tse

C. 天將近落雨 t'ín 'tsōng kan² lok² 'yü

It is moonlight.

M. 有月亮 yu³ yüeh⁴-liang⁴

S. „ „ „ 'yeu nyoeh liang³

C. 月光咯 yüt² 'kwong lok.

How old are you?

M. 你多大年幾 ni³ to¹ ta⁴ nien² chi

S. 儂幾歲哉 nong³ 'kyi soe³ tse

C. (politely) 貴庚 kwai³ 'kang; (ordinarily) 你今年幾多
歲 'néi 'kam 'nín 'kéi 'to sui²

I must go.

M. 我得去 wo³ tei³ ch'ü⁴

S. „ 必定去 'ngoo pih dīng' chī'

C. „ „ 要 „ 'ngo pīt, yíú' hui'

What did he say?

M. 他說甚麼了 t'a¹ shuo¹ shê(n)²-mo lo

S. 伊話啥 yi wo³ sa'

C. 佢 „ 乜野呢 k'ui wá² mat, 'ye ni

Excuse me.

M. 借光 chieh⁴ kuang¹; 容諒我 jung² liang wo³

S. 原諒 nyoen liang²; 對勿起 te' 'veh 'chi

C. 容諒我 yung löng² 'ngo

There is a fire.

M. 走了水了 tsou³ lo shui³ lo

S. 有失火哉 yeu seh 'hoo tse

C. „ 火咯 'yaú 'fo lok.

Impossible.

M. 不行 pu⁴ hsing²; 做不得 tso⁴ pu té

S. 做勿來 tsoo³ 'veh le

C. 不可 pat, 'ho; 做唔得 tsò² 'm tak,

Please come in; sit down.

M. 請進來; 請坐 ch'ing³ chin⁴ lai; ch'ing³ tso⁴

S. „ „ „ ; „ „ 'ts'ing t'ing' le; 'ts'ing 'zoo

C. „ 入嚟坐 'tseng† yap₂ lai 'ts'o†

God grant it!

M. 只盼老天爺賞恩 chih³ p'an⁴ lao³ t'ien¹ yeh² shang³ ên¹

S. „ 望天老 „ „ „ tsuh maung³ t'ien 'lau ya 'saung ung

C. 願上主恩准此事 yün² shōng² 'chü yan 'chun 'ts'z sz²

It is true.

M. 是真的 shih⁴ chên¹ ti

S. „ „ 个 ‘z tsung kuh

C. 係真 hai² çhan

What are your wishes?

M. 你要的是甚麼 ni³ yao⁴ ti shih⁴ shê(n)²-mo

S. 儂个情願啥事 nong² kuh dzing nyoen³ sa³ z³

C. 你要乜野呢 ‘néi yíú² mat, ‘ye çni

Thank God! I am well!

M. 託福我好了 t’o¹ fu² wo³ hao³ lo

S. „ „ „ „ 哉 t’auh fok ‘ngoo ‘hau tse

C. 多謝上帝我好呀 çto tse² shōng² tai² ‘ngo ‘hò á²

You are welcome.

M. 您來的很好 nin² lai² ti hên³ hao³

S. 儂 „ 得極 „ nong² le tuh juh ‘hau

C. 喜歡迎接你到嚟 ‘héi çfún çying tsíp. ‘néi tò² çlai

Is he at home?

M. 他在家麼 t’a¹ tsai⁴ chia¹ mo

S. 伊拉屋裏否 yi la² ok ‘li va²

C. 佢在 „ 跔唔在呢 ‘k’ui tsof uk, ‘k’éi çm tsoi² çni

Who is it?

M. 他是誰 t’a¹ shih⁴ shui²

S. 伊 „ 啥人 yi ‘z sa² nyung

C. 係乜誰呀 hai² mat, çshui* á²

Let him enter.

M. 叫他進來 chiao⁴ t’a¹ chin⁴ lai²

S. „ 伊 „ „ kyau² yi tsing² le

C. 俾佢入嚟喇 péi ‘k’ui yap² çlai çlá

Does the water boil?

M. 水開了沒有 shui³ k'ai¹ lo mei² yu

S. „ „ 哉否 's k'e tse va'

C. „ 滾唔滾呢 'shui 'kwan ɿm 'kwan ɿni

Wait for me.

M. 等我 têng³ wo³

S. „ 等我 'tung 'tung 'ngoo

C. „ 我 'tang 'ngo

Come with me.

M. 跟着我來 kên¹-cho wo³ lai²

S. 搭我一淘來 tah 'ngoo ih dau le

C. 同 „ 去 t'ung 'ngo hui'

Good-bye.

M. 請 ch'ing³

S. 再會 tse³ we³

C. (by host) 好行 'hò háng†, or 慢慢行 mán² mán²*
háng†; (by guest) 坐喇 ts'o† lá

Au revoir.

M. 再見 tsai⁴ chien⁴

S. „ 來會 tse³ le we³

C. 後會有期 hau² wú² 'yaú ɿk'úi

Pleasant journey.

M. 一路平安 i¹ lu⁴ p'ing² an¹

S. „ „ „ „ ih loo³ bing oen

C. 願你一路平安 yün² 'néi yat, lò² p'ing ɿon

Of course.

M. 自然 tzü⁴-jan²

S. „ „ z³ zen

C. „ „ tsz² yín

Please tell me.

M. 請告訴我 ch'ing³ kao⁴-su⁴ wo³

S. „ 儂告訴我 'ts'ing nong' kau' soo' 'ngoo

C. 唔該 (or 多煩) 你話我知 ɛm ɛkoi (or ɛto ɛfán) 'néi wá²
 'ngo ɛchí

Did you understand?

M. 你懂了沒有 ni³ tung³ lo mei² yu

S. 儂已經明白否 nong' 'i kyung ming bak va'

C. 你個時曉唔曉呀 'néi ko' ɛshí 'híu ɛm 'híu á'

I don't understand.

M. 我不懂 wo³ pu tung³

S. „ 勿 „ 'ngoo 'veh 'tong

C. „ 唔曉 (or 明白) 'ngo ɛm 'híu (or ɛming pák_o)

What did you say?

M. 你說甚麼了 ni³ shuo¹ shê(n)²-mo lo

S. 儂已經話啥 nong 'i kyung wo' sa'

C. 你話乜野呢 'néi wá² mat, 'ye ɛni

You are mistaken.

M. 你錯了 ni³ ts'o⁴ lo

S. 儂 „ 哉 nong' ts'o tse

C. 你 „ 呀 'néi ts'o' á'

No matter.

M. 不要緊 pu⁴ yao⁴ chin³

S. 勿 „ „ 'veh iau' 'kyung

C. 有相干 'mò sǒng ɛkon

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